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ABSTRACT

This manual was prepared to provide union leaders, organizers, and local officers with information about the experiences of Asian-American, Black, Hispanic-American, female, and part-time workers. The Asian-American workers section includes information on Chinese, Japanese, Filipinos, Koreans, Asian-Indians, Southeast Asians, and Pacific Islanders and includes discussions of populations, locations, labor force participation, employment statistics, and specific issues. The Black workers section includes information on population, income, poverty, labor force participation, families, women, education, the future of work, unions, and politics. The Hispanic workers section includes information on population, income, poverty, unemployment, labor force participation, occupations, unions, and how business targets Hispanics. The section on women workers includes information on the "pink collar ghetto," minority women, pay equity, child care and parental leave, health and safety, part-time workers, flexible scheduling, insurance and pensions, sexual harassment, and women in unions. The part-time workers section includes information on the makeup of the disposable workforce, part-time workers, temporary workers, and compensation and benefits. All of the sections, except the one on part-time workers, include appendices listing a variety of resources such as research centers, films, publications, and organizations. (CML)

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ASIANS

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WORKER'S KALEIDOSCOPE

As the saying goes, America is the World's melting pot and today's workforce consists of nearly as many women as men; of a variety of racial and ethnic groups; and of millions of workers opting for schedules radically different from the traditional nine-to-five workday.

The injection of these groups into the workforce has had a profound effect on American society and values. But it has also altered the approach that the Labor Movement must take to **effectively organize** new workers and **properly represent** those workers who are already members.

The key to effectively adapting is to understand the changing world around us. We all know that Blacks and Asians live in our communities, but do we really understand them as distinct groups in society? Can we effectively comprehend the problems they encounter without a firm grip of the facts about their numbers, their associations and their histories?

The goal is not to segregate but to integrate. We need to create one great federation of solidarity regardless of age, race, sex or ethnic origin. **The key to accomplishing that goal is understanding.** This manual provides an in-depth look at some of these working groups in society: Asians, Blacks, Hispanics, women and part-time/temporary workers.

This manual presents the facts that will provide union leaders with the tools necessary to welcome millions to the Labor Movement.

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FOCUS ON:

ASIAN WORKERS
Income
Occupations
Issues
Trends
Industries
Population

I. INTRODUCTION

Knowing and Organizing American Workers

The changing composition of the American labor force is a constant challenge for the American labor movement. To protect and strengthen the rights of all workers, unions must adapt and reach out to new groups of workers. The population of Asian-American workers is one of the fastest growing segments of the American work force. One third of all legal immigrants come from Asian, East Asian and Southeast Asian nations.

Asian-Americans are often termed a "super minority," whose academic and economic achievements are quite remarkable. Statistics indicate that Asian-Americans have achieved a higher socioeconomic status than other minority groups. This is not true of many recent arrivals from Southeast Asia who have arrived culturally and linguistically ill-equipped for life in the United States.

Asian-Americans who do not speak English well and are ignorant of their rights as workers and citizens are easily exploited by employers. Historically, immigrants have been seen as a cheap source of labor by many American businesses and continue to be underpaid, sometimes in violation of federal and state labor laws.

Asian-Americans face racism and discrimination both inside and outside the workplace. Recent immigrants may have extensive experience in a particular field, but may be automatically assigned to low-paying jobs which do not make appropriate use of their education or career qualifications.

Asian-Americans who have been in the U.S. for a substantial period of time, or who were born in the U.S., also face discrimination in the workplace. Studies have shown that Asian-Americans, like other minority-group members, earn less than whites with similar levels of education. In 1980, men of Asian descent earned 99 cents and women of Asian descent earned 61 cents for every dollar earned by a white man.

Racism extends beyond the workplace. As the Asian-American population grows, reports of violent attacks against them are more frequent.

* * * *

We have prepared this manual to provide union leaders, organizers, and local officers with information about the experiences of Asian-American workers. Understanding the diversity of Asian-Americans can be the first step in bringing these people into the labor movement.

Food and Allied Service Trades Department, AFL-CIO

Because Asians are often grouped together it is important to understand that Asian-Americans come from diverse cultures and histories. In this manual the term "Asian-Americans" refers to immigrants (foreign-born peoples), and descendants of immigrants who were born in the United States, from: China, the Philippines, Japan, India, Korea, Vietnam, Laos, Thailand, Cambodia, Pakistan, Indonesia and the Pacific Islands.

Labor leaders and organizers must be acutely aware of the cultural diversity of the American workforce. When organizing and servicing American workers, these leaders need knowledge of the ethnic composition of each workplace. Successful organizing demands this understanding. We must communicate with workers in their own languages.

For example, Local 2 of the Hotel Employees and Restaurant Employees Union (HERE) in San Francisco represents 13,000 workers, one-third of whom are Asian-American. Local 2 translates all of its union material into Chinese. The union also communicates with its members in Korean, Vietnamese, and Tagalog, the language of the Philippines.

Today, the success of the American Labor Movement depends upon the ability to adapt to changes in the workforce. The struggles and victories of Asian workers in America should be an inspiration to labor organizing.

II. ASIAN-AMERICANS AND PACIFIC-AMERICANS: WHO ARE THEY?

Asia and the Pacific are vast regions that contain over half of the world's population. Population growth and economic and political instability have led the people of these regions to come to the U.S. in search of economic and political freedom.

In 1986, there were approximately 5 million Asian-Americans in the United States that number is expected to double by the year 1990. Approximately 95% of the Asian-American population belongs to five ethnic groups: Chinese, Japanese, Filipino, Korean, and Asian-Indian.

According to the Bureau of the Census, immigration during the 1980's accounts for one fourth to one third of the nation's population growth. Between 1983 and 1986, over 45,000 Filipinos; nearly 35,000 Koreans and Vietnamese; 25,000 Asian Indians; and over 10,000 immigrants from Cambodia and Laos came to the United States. Immigration from Asia in the 1980's has increased so much since the 1970's, that the Census Bureau claims that U.S. residents who are neither black or white increased by 45% in this decade.

A. Chinese

Chinese immigration began in the late nineteenth-century, as the need for an inexpensive source of labor grew. The 10,500 Chinese immigrants in the U.S. in 1880 lived and worked in California. By 1900, there were 119,000 Chinese-Americans living in the U.S.

Chinese immigrants were recruited by American businesses to work in the fast-growing railroad, mining and agricultural industries in the western U.S. These immigrants were employed in jobs where there was low pay, long hours and often unsafe conditions, positions white Americans would not take.

The economic depression of the 1870's reduced the number of jobs available for white men, which sparked a rush of anti-Chinese sentiments. The Chinese, who had been recruited to fill positions that whites refused, were blamed for the white men's inability to find jobs. The result was lynchings of Chinese workers and mass riots. This tension led to an immigration law in 1882 that banned Chinese immigration and required some employers to return workers to China.

The U.S. continued to extend the exclusion of Chinese immigrants through 1924. The quota system created in 1924 allowed 100 Chinese immigrants to enter the U.S. each year. In 1965, the repeal of the quota system allowed free immigration of Chinese.

In 1970, 10,000 Chinese women worked in garment factories in the U.S. Nearly 26% of Chinese-Americans held professional or technical occupations in 1970, up from 3% in 1940 possibly because many Chinese-Americans came to the U.S. as college students and stayed.

B. Japanese

One result of anti-Chinese sentiment in the 1870's and 1880's was the substitution of Japanese workers for Chinese. In 1890, 12,000 Japanese were living and working in Hawaii and 3,000 in the mainland U.S. Like other Asian immigrants, the Japanese were recruited to work on Hawaiian sugar plantations, railroads, and in canneries and mining.

The immigration of Japanese workers was restricted beginning in 1907, when President Theodore Roosevelt asked Japan to deny visas to workers attempting to enter the U.S. Not until 1952, were Japanese immigrants allowed to enter the U.S. When legislation allowed the entry of 100 Japanese each year.

Anti-Japanese sentiments were not only expressed in terms of immigration quotas. During World War II, 120,000 Japanese-Americans on the West Coast were held in internment camps. A full 63% of those uprooted and interned were born in the U.S.

Today, Japanese-Americans are among the highest paid ethnic groups in the U.S.

C. Filipinos

The Philippines became part of the U.S. as a result of the Spanish-American War, after which Filipinos were allowed unrestricted immigration as nationals. In 1906, 160 Filipinos were recruited for work in the Hawaiian sugar plantations. The number of immigrants had increased to 108,000 by 1930.

In 1946, when the Philippines achieved independence, immigration was limited to 100 entry visas each year. The number of immigrants between 1950 and 1970 doubled. Since then, more immigrants have arrived from the Philippines than any other country except Mexico, and by 1985, Filipinos had almost displaced Chinese as the largest Asian-American group. The 1980 Census reported 781,894 Philippine-Americans living in the U.S., nearly half of whom were born abroad. Most immigrants since 1950 have been males between the ages of 20 and 40.

First recruited as a source of cheap labor on the Pacific Coast, many worked in agriculture during the summer and in hotels and restaurants in the winter. Filipinos were active in the movement to organize farm workers in the California. Since the 1965 Immigration reform, two-thirds of the Filipinos entering the U.S. have been professional and skilled workers. Significant Filipino communities have been established in Los Angeles, Chicago, San Francisco and New York City.

D. Koreans

Koreans are the largest and fastest growing of the Asian-American immigrant population. The 1980 census recorded 65,600 Korean immigrants living in the U.S., 90% of whom have been here less than 15 years.

Koreans first came to U.S. territory as laborers on Hawaiian sugar plantations in the nineteenth-century. In 1905, Korea was under Japanese control and immigration ground to a halt. Between 1910 and 1940 fewer than 9,000 people of Korean descent lived in Hawaii and mainland U.S.

From 1952-1960, the Korean conflict brought 8,000 Korean wives and children of U.S. military personnel. Between 1959 and 1970, 70% of Korean immigrants were women between the ages of 20 and 39. Since 1973, Koreans have been immigrating at a rate of 20,000 a year.

Los Angeles has the highest Korean population; in 1970 Korean immigrants numbered 5,000, by 1980 that number had reached 150,000. The Korean immigrant population is highly educated. A full 50% of Korean immigrants have a college education.

E. Asian-Indian

The Asian-Indian population includes immigrants from India, Pakistan and Bangledesh. Compared with other Asians Indian-American immigrants have been in the U.S. for a short period of time. Prior to 1965 there were fewer than 17,000 Indian-Americans living in the U.S. A small number of Indians were recruited with other Asians to work in railroad construction in the nineteenth-century.

The one-half million Americans of Indian extraction living in the U.S. in 1980, boast the highest median income of any Asian ethnic group and most do not face the language and education barriers confronting most Asian-Americans. Indian-Americans are well-educated and usually speak English when they arrive in the U.S.

F. Southeast Asia

Southeast Asia includes the nations of Vietnam, Cambodia, Laos and Thailand. The immigration experience of these Asians is markedly different from that of other Asian immigrants. Asian-Americans from Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia entered the U.S. as refugees escaping political and social turmoil at home. Between 1966 and 1975, 20,038 Vietnamese were living in the U.S. and the numbers for Laotians and Cambodians were not contained in the INS statistics. Wives and children of U.S. military personnel accounted for 75% of Vietnamese immigrants between 1968 and 1971.

With the fall of Saigon in 1975, 130,000 Vietnamese refugees entered the U.S.; nearly 55% were under 35 and 65% were under 25 years-old. This first group included prosperous Vietnamese, former South Vietnamese government officials, former employees of the United States military, dependents of U.S. servicemen and former officials of multinational corporations. Upon their arrival in the U.S., 85% who had held white collar jobs in Vietnam were employed in blue collar occupations in the U.S.

The second wave of immigration from the area was far different. Approximately one-half of the 640,000 immigrants who entered the U.S. after the Vietnamese invasion of Cambodia in 1978, were Cambodian and Laotian. This group of immigrants were from rural areas, had little education and few occupational skills. These immigrants were forced to take low-wage, low-skilled jobs.

Large Vietnamese communities have been established in San Francisco, Los Angeles, New Orleans and Dallas.

G. Pacific Islanders

Immigration from the Pacific Islands, which include American Samoa, Guam, Tonga, Figi, Tahiti, is very recent. The 1980 figure of 259,566 in the U.S. was more than double the 1970 figure. Samoans and Guamanians (also known as Chamorros) make up the largest of the Pacific Island immigrants. Exact figures are not available since U.S. nationals are not counted by the INS.

Samoans are allowed free entry into the U.S. as nationals. The Samoan population in the U.S. is nearly 1.5 times the island population. There are between 40,000 and 60,000 Samoans living in the U.S., according to 1980 census statistics. Likewise, Chamorros or Guamanians are given free entry into the U.S. by the 1950 Organic Act of Guam. Between 1963 and 1971, 11,930 Guamanians immigrated to Hawaii and the West Coast. Today, an estimated 30,000 to 50,000 Chamorros live in the U.S. Most Pacific Island immigrants live on the West Coast, 53% are in Hawaii and 25% in California.

The U.S. Navy's removal of a base from Samoa to Hawaii in 1951 prompted a wave of immigration. Many Samoans had been employed at the base and its removal forced them to look for employment elsewhere. Nearly all Pacific Island immigrants are unskilled or semiskilled laborers who work in construction, janitorial, night watchmen and guard occupations. Many women work as hotel housekeepers, hospital or nursing home aides and in fish canneries.

The unemployment rate is 25-30% among adult males of Pacific Island origin. The poverty rate in the community ranges from 13.1% to a staggering 29.5%.

III. ASIAN-AMERICAN HISTORY AND POPULATION

Prior to the World War II, there were three major waves of Asian-American immigration: the period from 1848-1882 which was dominated by the Chinese, the period from 1890-1924 when many Japanese immigrated and the period from 1920-1935 when Filipinos immigrated. The vast majority of the Asian-American population has come to the United States in the last 20 years. Immigration laws have played an important role in determining which ethnic groups are able to come to the U.S.

Many laws have been targeted at Asian immigrants. In 1882, the Chinese were excluded from immigration and replaced by the Japanese who were subsequently excluded in 1907. The 1917 Asiatic Barred Zone essentially banned the immigration of Asians. The Filipinos, as U.S. nationals made up the majority of Asian immigrants until World War II. The Immigration Act of 1924, which placed immigration quotas on a country-by-country basis, did not include Asian immigrants.

The 1965 Immigration Reform Act did away with the quota system and rewrote any remaining restrictions on Asian immigrants. It also created a system which gave priority to immigrants with family in the U.S. or those with special occupational skills. The Indochinese Refugee Act of 1977 and the Refugee Act of 1980 eased 1965 restrictions for persons escaping political, racial, religious or ethnic persecution.

The 1980 U.S. Census indicated that there were approximately 3.5 million Asian-Americans, up from 1.4 million in 1970. The Asian-American population was estimated at 5.1 million as of September 30, 1985, or about 2.1 percent of the overall population. Asian-Americans are considered the fastest growing minority group. If growth continues at the same rate, Asian-Americans could total 9.9 million by the year 2000.

Table 1

Asian-American Population in the U.S.[1]

Ethnic Group	1980 Census	Est. 9/30/85
Chinese	812,178	1,079,400
Filipino	781,894	1,051,600
Japanese	716,331	766,300
Asian-Indian	387,223	525,600
Korean	357,393	542,400
Vietnamese	245,025	634,200
Laotian	47,683	218,400
Thai	45,279	
Cambodian	16,044	161,000
Pakistani	15,792	
Indonesian	9,618	
Hmong	5,204	
Others	26,757	169,200
Total	3.5 million	5.1 million

Between 1970 and 1980, the Asian-American population grew by 141 percent, more than ten times faster than the American population as a whole and three times faster than the Hispanic population, which grew by 39 percent.[2]

Not all Asian-Americans are recent immigrants, however. Many Asian and Pacific-Americans are American-born descendants of immigrants, especially Chinese and Japanese Americans.

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[1]Table compiled from information of the 1980 Census and "Asian-Americans: Growth, Change, and Diversity," Robert W. Gardner, Bryant Robey, and Peter C. Smith, a publication of the Population Reference Bureau, Inc.

[2] Gardner, Robey, and Smith, p. 3.

IV. WHERE ASIAN-AMERICANS LIVE

As of the 1980 Census, 56% of all Asian-Americans lived in the western states. Eighty percent of all Japanese and 69% of all Filipino-Americans lived on the West Coast.

While Asian-Americans live predominantly in the West, large groups of Asian-Americans are concentrated in other regions throughout the U.S. Twenty-seven percent of the Chinese population and 34% of the Asian-Indian population live in the Northeast.

Table 2

Total U.S. and Asian Population by Region[2]

Population	Northeast	Midwest	South	West
Total U.S.	21.7	26.0	33.3	19.1
Total Asian	17.1	12.3	14.2	56.4
Japanese	6.5	6.5	6.6	80.3
Chinese	26.8	9.2	11.3	52.7
Filipino	9.9	10.4	11.0	68.8
Korean	19.1	18.1	19.9	42.9
Asian-Indian	34.2	23.1	23.4	19.2
Vietnamese	9.0	13.4	31.4	46.2

A higher proportion of Asian-Americans live in cities than do Americans as a whole. In 1980, 92% of the six major Asian-American groups lived in metropolitan areas, while 75% of the overall population lived in cities in 1980.

Immigrants concentrate in cities where the unskilled or semiskilled job market is larger than in rural areas. Ethnic communities have developed in large cities which has helped to ease the transition of new immigrants.

Some interesting facts:

* Seattle's greatest number of immigrants come from the Philippines, Vietnam, and South Korea.

* Almost half of the new immigrants to Honolulu were born in the Philippines.

* In Dallas Vietnamese and Indian immigrants are second only to Mexican immigrants.

* The Denver area receives almost as many immigrants from Vietnam as from Mexico.

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[2] Gardner, Robey and Smith, p. 10.

* The largest share of immigrants to Detroit come from India.

* Minneapolis-St. Paul is the second most popular destination for Laotians.

* The greatest number of immigrants to Baltimore are from South Korea.

* Mexicans, Filipinos, and Koreans immigrate to Chicago, in that order, according to statistics.

V. CHARACTERISTICS OF ASIAN-AMERICAN ETHNIC GROUPS

A. Age

The circumstances of recent Asian immigrants accounts for the low median age of Asian-Americans. As a result of wars in Korea and Vietnam, many children and wives of U.S. servicemen have come to the U.S. In 1980, the median age of Vietnamese-Americans was just over 21 years.

The median age of all Americans in 1980 was 30. Japanese-Americans and Asian-Indians had a median age either the same or higher than that. For every other Asian-American group the median age was lower.

Table 3

Median Ages of U.S., White, Hispanic, and Asian-American Populations[3]

	MEDIAN AGE		
Population	Total	Male	Female
Total U.S.	30.0	28.8	31.2
White	31.3	30.0	32.5
Hispanic	24.9	23.5	26.1
Japanese	33.5	31.0	35.9
Chinese	29.6	29.4	29.8
Filipino	28.5	27.7	29.1
Korean	26.0	23.3	27.1
Asian-Indian	30.1	30.2	30.1
Vietnamese	21.5	20.6	22.7

B. Family

The 1965 immigration reforms allow immigration on the basis of family ties in the U.S. Many recent immigrants of Asian origin have been allowed entry because family members are already in the U.S. An Asian family will send a son to the U.S. who gets a job and earns enough money to send for his family. This creates a cyclical kinship system.

The strong family ties and work ethics characteristic of Asian culture are key factors in the achievement of Asian-Americans in the United States. Asian-American families tend to live together and pool their income. They tend to save money for education, or to start up a small business or franchised chain.

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[3] Gardner, Robey, Smith, p. 13.

The composition of the family varies amongst Asian-American groups according, to different immigration experiences and distinct cultural habits. These differences include such factors as childbearing behavior.

The fertility rates of Japanese and Chinese-Americans are 1.7 live births per woman, below the national average of 1.8. The fertility rate for other Asian-Americans is higher than the national average; Indians 1.8, Koreans 2.0, Filipino 2.5, Vietnamese and other Southeast Asian 3.0.

The immediate families of the most recently arrived immigrants tend to include a greater number of relatives, in addition to the parents and children, than the households of Asian-Americans in general.

The 1980 Census demonstrates that Japanese-American households are the same size as white households averaging 2.7 persons. Chinese households have an average of 3.1 persons; Asian-Indian households are also relatively small at 2.9; while Korean, Filipino and Vietnamese households are larger; Vietnamese have the largest households with an average of 4.4 persons living together.

Generally, there are many advantages for recent immigrants in forming larger households. First, family income is pooled since unemployed family members can be supported by members who are working. Second, child care and other family needs may be more easily shared.

The economic well-being and socioeconomic level of the family is another factor which affects the size of the household. The wealthier a family, the less need there is to share rent.

Table 4

Avreage Household Size for U.S.
White, Hispanic and Asian-American

Population	Average Persons per Household
White	2.7
Black	3.1
Hispanic	3.5
Japanese	2.7
Chinese	3.1
Filipino	3.6
Korean	3.4
Asian-Indian	2.9
Vietnamese	4.4

C. Education

An Asian-American commented that "When Asians come to America first they want the green card for themselves, then the green book bag for their children". In many Asian families, education seems almost an obsession. In fact, recent studies indicate that Asian students spend much more time on homework than other students.

Academic achievement may be the most publicized characteristic of Asian-Americans. Examples of exceptional performance in education include high standardized test scores, high school achievement awards, entrance to the best colleges and universities and high numbers of students graduating from college.

The 1980 Census recorded that 35% of adults over age 25 in the six main Asian-American groups graduated from college, more than double the percentage (17%) of white adults.

VI. LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

The 1980 Census reported that almost all Asian-American groups were working or looking for work (the labor force participation rate) at higher rates than their white and black counterparts.

Seventy-six percent of all white men age 16 and over were participating in the labor force. Of the major Asian-American groups, Chinese and Vietnamese men were the only groups participating in the labor force at lower rates than white men. The Chinese labor force participation rate was 64%; Vietnamese, 65%. The other Asian-American groups participated at higher rates; Asian-Indian men had the highest participation rate at 84%.

Forty-nine percent of white women were in the labor force, while forty-seven percent of both Asian-Indian women and Vietnamese women participated in the labor force. All of the other groups had higher labor force rates among women, Filipino women having the highest rate at 68%.

Asian and "other" racial groups will account for 11% of all new workers in the next decade.

This high employment rate reflects the importance of work in many Asian cultures. Table 5 illustrates this assertion:

Table 5

Labor Force Participation of Asian-Americans

Labor Force Participation	64%
Unemployment Rate	4%
Employed Person by Sex	
Male	53%
Female	47%
Occupations	33%
Managerial/Professional	22%
Sales/Technical/Clerk	32%
Other	48%

A. Asian-Americans and Unions

Asian-American workers are increasingly active in local unions around the country. This is especially true in cities and towns where an Asian community has developed and in unions that have encouraged Asian-American participation. Unions which have tried to involve immigrant leaders in the local, have included immigrant shop stewards, and have employed translators during organizing drives have been most successful.

Food and Allied Service Trades Department, AFL-CIO

In an article by Hotel Employees and Restaurant Employees Local 2 Field Representative Pat Lee on Asian immigrant women in San Francisco, Lee makes some interesting points about Asian-American attitudes toward work, the boss and how our unions can especially help immigrants adjust:

> "Most of Local 2's immigrant women members originate from countries where labor codes are weak and enforcement is practically nonexistent. In places like Korea and Taiwan, for example, a complaint to the authorities will usually lead to harassment from employers or immediate firing. Since notices are not often posted in factories in such authoritarian societies, workers are not aware that they might have the right to complain. In contrast, the immigrant women now find themselves within a society which expects people to complain.
>
> Managers often take advantage of the immigrants' ignorance of the contract and the laws to illegally exploit them. Overtime without pay and denial of rest periods and lunch breaks are common abuses in the hotel trade. Immigrant housekeepers and kitchen workers often get blamed for accidents instead of pointing to dangerous working conditions, such as slippery floors or exposure to dangerous chemicals. [The union can] inform the immigrant worker about how to use the union grievance procedure and the laws to fight back."

Many trade unions in Asian countries suffer from government repression, limited freedom of association, and internal divisions.

In South Korea, for example, labor unions have been part of a struggle to increase freedom but they have been legally harassed and even violently attacked by the government. Military control of unions is even a problem in some Asian countries. In Thailand, military officers have tried to weaken labor unity. In communist countries like China, trade unions have become an arm of the state.

It is clear that even when Asian-Americans are familiar with unions from their home countries, what they know about unions can be very different from what we know unions to be.

B. Asian-American Women

The table below shows how a person's length of time in the United States, as well as English proficiency affect the labor force participation rate among women.

Except among Asian-Indians and Filipino women, native-born Asian-American women are more likely to be in the labor force than foreign-born. Asian-American women who speak little English are much less likely to be in the labor force than those whose English is better. For example, 27% of Japanese women who spoke English "not well" or "not at all" were in the labor force, while 72% of those who spoke English at home were in the labor force.

Filipino women are in the labor force at higher rates than the women of all other Asian-American groups. Filipino families earn less than other Asian-American groups, with the exception of the Vietnamese. The pressure to increase household income certainly contributes to the need for every family member to work, explaining in part the high participation rate of Filipino women.

Table 6

Asian-American Women's Labor Force Participation
by Family Situation, Nationality, and English Proficiency

Characteristics	Japanese	Chinese	Filipino	Korean	Asian-Indian	Vietnamese
Native-born	68.3	65.0	64.5	59.1	29.4	56.1
Foreign-born	42.7	56.0	68.8	54.8	53.6	48.7
Abroad in 1975	26.0	46.9	60.5	50.9	51.6	44.1
Speaks Only English at Home	71.8	67.8	67.3	59.7	36.0	56.0
Speaks Another Language at Home	48.2	57.9	70.3	55.8	53.6	50.2
Speaks English "Not Well" or "Not at All"	26.8	48.5	32.2	50.5	30.9	34.1

C. Occupations

How long one has been in the United States, and whether one was born here or abroad, affects where a worker is employed.

Asian-Americans born in the U.S. typically work in the same occupations as white Americans. Foreign-born Asian-Americans, however, like other minorities and immigrants before them, are found disproportionately in low-paying service occupations. They are also disproportionately found at the top of the occupational hierarchy in professional, managerial and executive positions.

In 1980, 24% of employed white Americans occupied jobs as managers, professionals, or executives, but the proportion of foreign-born Asian-Americans in this high-status category was 26% for Filipinos, 28% for Japanese, 30% for Chinese, and 47% for Asian-Indians. Only among foreign born Koreans and Vietnamese were the figures for professional jobs lower than for whites.

For Koreans, a possible explanation is that many Asian-Americans have gone into commercial occupations. For Vietnamese people, the explanation is that most of the foreign-born immigrants were less educated farmers, fishers and laborers, speaking little English.

Immigrants are usually forced to take jobs for which they are over-qualified when they first arrive.

For most recent Asian immigrants, the old American image of immigrants filling the lowest rungs of the occupational ladder is not necessarily true. The success of Asian-Americans at moving beyond low-paying occupations has been accompanied by resentment.

According to the 1980 Census, almost 60 percent of all American workers were employed in the three industrial sectors of manufacturing, professional services, or retail. Asian groups, with the exception of the Japanese, were more heavily represented in these sectors than were whites, blacks, and Hispanics.

Some other facts about where Asian-Americans work:

* Korean workers have higher proportions in both retail trade and manufacturing. Vietnamese workers are more heavily employed in the manufacturing industry.

* Data on employment in manufacturing indicated that American-born Asian-Americans are much less likely to be employed in manufacturing than were immigrant Asian, white, Hispanic, or black workers.

* Among Asian immigrant workers, with the exception of the Japanese, those who recently arrived are much more likely to be employed in manufacturing than were earlier immigrants.

* Asian-Indian and Filipino workers are more heavily concentrated in professional services.

* Chinese workers are employed evenly in all three of the industrial sectors (manufacturing, service, and retail) with a slightly higher concentration in retail.

* The traditional concentration of Chinese, Japanese and Korean immigrants in the small business and commercial retail sector continues.

D. Sweatshops

Although there are no accurate figures as to how many sweatshops there are in the United States, the estimate is that there are as many as 3,000 in New York, 1,000 in Los Angeles, and several hundred in Chicago. These estimates, if accurate, would make up 9% of the U.S. apparel workforce. It is hard to estimate who the actual employees of these workshops are since the vast majority are illegal immigrants. Yet, there are an increasing number of Asian and Hispanics workers who are citizens, but do not realize they are being taken advantage of in filthy, unsafe working conditions.

In some places, the bosses have installed phony unions before hiring the employee; legitimate unions then have to go through a lengthy de-certification process before starting a real organizing drive.

Union activists in Southern California have announced the formation of the Alliance of Asian-Pacific Labor, a group which links the Asian community to the American Labor movement.

Often, when Asians are wronged, insulted or exploited, cultural conditioning pressures them to avoid confrontation. However, there has been an increase in the number of suits filed for unfair working conditions and work grievances include efforts to enforce minimum wage laws.

VII. INCOME, POVERTY, UNEMPLOYMENT STATISTICS

According to the 1980 Census, unemployment rates for Asian-American groups are below the rates of unemployment of white and black Americans. The rates of unemployment for every major Asian groups, except for Vietnamese, is the same or lower than the unemployment rate for whites.

Foreign-born Japanese, Chinese, Koreans, and Vietnamese have higher levels of unemployment than their native-born counterparts. The reverse is true, however, for Filipinos and Asian-Indians.

For all Asian groups except the Japanese, jobless rates are higher among Asians who had immigrated after 1975 than for those who had come earlier.

According to the 1980 Census, Asian-American families' median annual income is $23,600 for the six major groups. The median for American families as a whole is $19,900; for white families the median is $20,800. In contrast, the median income is $12,840 for Vietnamese families.

There are more workers per member in Asian-American families. Sixty-three percent of Asian families have two or more wage-earners, as opposed to 55 percent of white families.

The importance of family and household structure is clear when figures for families with incomes below the poverty level are examined.

Table 7

White, Black, Hispanic and Asian-American Worker Incomes and Family Poverty Levels in 1979

Population	Median Income of Full-Time Worker	Percent Families Below Poverty Level
White	$15,572	7.0%
Black	11,327	26.5
Hispanic	11,650	21.3
Asian-Americans by Ethnic Group		
Japanese	16,829	4.2
Chinese	15,753	10.5
Filipino	13,690	6.2
Korean	14,224	13.1
Asian-Indian	18,707	7.4
Vietnamese	11,641	35.1

Table 7 (continued)

White, Black, Hispanic and Asian-American Worker Incomes and Family Poverty Levels in 1979

Population	Median Income of Full-Time Worker	Percent Families Below Poverty Level
Foreign-born Asian-Americans by country of birth		
Japan, total	9,937	5.6
Immigrated 1975-1980	9,444	10.1
Immigrated 1970-1974	9,946	6.2
Immigrated before 1970	9,986	4.3
Taiwan or Hong Kong, total	11,818	11.8
Immigrated 1975-1980	9,676	22.8
Immigrated 1970-1974	12,392	6.1
Immigrated before 1970	13,692	2.8
Philippines, total	12,715	5.3
Immigrated 1975-1980	10,069	8.8
Immigrated 1970-1974	13,110	3.8
Immigrated before 1970	14,037	4.6
Korea, total	9,589	7.9
Immigrated 1975-1980	8,250	11.1
Immigrated 1970-1974	9,814	6.6
Immigrated before 1970	11,698	4.0
India, total	13,138	5.0
Immigrated 1975-1980	10,968	10.7
Immigrated 1970-1974	14,140	3.2
Immigrated before 1970	15,015	2.2
Vietnam, total	9,256	30.3
Immigrated 1975-1980	9,179	35.7
Immigrated 1970-1974	8,866	8.7
Immigrated before 1970.	12,120	6.8

VIII. SPECIFIC ISSUES FOR ASIAN-AMERICAN WORKERS

A. Immigration: The New Law and What it Means to Asian-Americans

A new immigration law in 1986 made it illegal for employers to hire individuals who are not legally authorized to work in the U.S. Some feared that as a result of this law, employers would not hire individuals who appear foreign. To prevent employers from discriminating against anyone with an accent, Congress also included a nondiscrimination provision to be enforced by the Justice Department.

Asians in America are not refugees in the classic sense. Asian immigrants are less concerned with rejecting their past than with reaffirming elements of their past in a new setting.

Included as Appendix E, is the policy statement of the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC). EEOC field offices monitor labor practices and investigate alleged violations of fair labor practices, including discrimination in hiring and promotions.

Fearing deportation, undocumented workers may find it difficult to talk to the union. Organizers must know whether workers are undocumented and the union should distribute information on the rights of undocumented workers. Literature should be available from a local organization to defend immigrant rights or from a legal services program. Calling in the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) during an organizing drive is an unfair labor practice. Workers should be informed of this.

At H.E.R.E. Local 2 in San Francisco, members get free legal advice on amnesty or refugee status and other immigration problems. This is particularly important to immigrant workers because of the legal maze of the INS and the way employers exploit it.

If an immigrant has been in the country illegally since before January 1, 1982, the person may be eligible for legalization.

B. Tensions Among Minorities

Asian-Americans and blacks are often competing for economic progress in traditionally black neighborhoods. New immigrants are more likely to set up shops in the city than in the affluent white suburbs where prices for land and housing are higher. One result has been tension between the races.

Tension is not limited to minority competition, however. Racial violence against Asian-Americans, as in the attack on Vietnamese fishermen in Texas in the early 1980's was allegedly committed by white competitors.

There is also tension between Asian-American groups on occasion. For example, Vietnam and Cambodia have been at war since 1979. Some American workplaces where both ethnic groups are employed have seen tension among workers, related to this situation in Southeast Asia.

C. Language

The English language is an obstacle for many Asian immigrants and a lack of fluency creates barriers to employment and promotion prompting many Asians to choose fields that place less of a premium on language.

A 1982 survey of Southeast Asian refugee families found that nearly two-thirds of the immigrants spoke no English on arrival, 20 percent knew "hardly" any English and 17 percent had "some proficiency".

Unions and organizers should always be prepared to accommodate non-English speaking members by providing translation at meetings and by translating union literature.

APPENDIX A

Immigration Assistance

The ILGWU Immigration Project (212) 627-0600 has been helping members and their families legalize their immigration status under the new immigration law. In Boston, Chicago, Los Angeles and New York, ILGWU Immigration Project staffers counsel members.

Handling requests for assistance from local unions:

Reuben Diaz, AFL-CIO Los Angeles - Orange Counties Organizing
Committee, 3556 Lexington Ave., El Monte, (818)-401-0111

June McMahon, UCLA Center for Labor Research and Education, (213) 825-3537.

Glenn Omatsu, UCLA Asian-American Studies Center (213-825-2968).

Gloria Busman, UCLA Center for Labor Relations (213)825-9602

Asian- Pacific-American Legal Center of Southern California
213-748-2022

APPENDIX B

Publications, Books and Articles

ASIAN-WEEK
809-11 Sacramento Street
San Francisco CA 94108
(an English Language journal for the Asian-American community.)

AMERASIA JOURNAL covers all Asian-American groups, with articles and reviews on immigration, education, politics, labor and economics, and race and class.

ROOTS: AN ASIAN-AMERICAN...
Amy Tachiki
1971, UCLA.
("100 Years of Japanese Labor in the U.S.," Carl Yoneda.)

COUNTERPOINT: PERSPECTIVES ON ASIA-AMERICA
Emma Gee
UCLA, 1976.
("Chinese-American Labor History," Him Mark Lai.)

AMERICA IS IN THE HEART
Carlos Buloson, 1946

NEW YORK CHINATOWN
Peter Kwong, Hill and Wang
1987 or 1988.

APPENDIX C

Asian Newspapers/Magazines

U.S. ASIAN NEWS SERVICE, INC.
1053 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-638-1117
Julie Moon

ASIAN AFFAIRS, AN AMERICAN REVIEW
Heldref Publications
4000 Albemarle St., N.W.
Washington, DC 20016
202-362-6445
Contact: Barbara Kahn

ASIAN-WEEK
809-11 Sacramento Street
San Francisco CA 94108
(an English Language journal for the Asian-American community.)

AMERASIA JOURNAL covers all Asian-American groups, with articles and reviews on immigration, education, politics, labor and economics, and race and class.

China (People's Republic)

FAR EAST NEWS AGENCY
(U.S. Chinese Language Papers)
990 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-638-1623
Chiang K. Li

PEOPLE'S DAILY
3706 Massachusetts Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20016
202-966-2285
Bureau Chief: Zhang Yunwen

WEN HUI BAO DAILY
2401 Calvert St., NW, #617
Washington, DC 20008
202-483-4763
Jiali Chen

BEIJING DAILY
3003 Van Ness St., NW
#S-901
Washington, DC 20005
202-363-7188
Yuan Jin

CHINA NEWS SERVICE
2401 Calvet St., NW, #901
Washington, DC 20008
202-667-0337
Wang Shigu

XINHUA NEWS AGENCY
1740 N. 14th St.
Arlington, VA 22209
703-875-0085
Bureau Chief: Yanning Li

China (continued)

TAIWAN DAILY NEWS
8600 Aqueduct Rd.
Potomac, MD 20854
301-251-0852
Benedict S. Hsu

CHINA TIMES
1040 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-662-7570
Bureau Chief: Norman C. Fu

GUANGMING DAILY
4816 Butterworth Plaza
Washington, DC 20016
202-363-0628
Xianfa Jing

CENTRAL NEWS AGENCY
1108 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-628-2738
Bureau Chief: Rock J. Leng

UNITED DAILY NEWS
1121 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-737-6426
Bureau Chief: C.K.M. Shih

CENTRAL DAILY NEWS
2 Framington Court
Gaithersburg, MD 20897
301-977-4404
Bruce Wang

Indochinese

SONG MAGAZINE
P.O. Box 317
Station H
Toronto, Ontario
Canada M4C 5J2

VIETNAM TU DO
P.O. Box 76269
Washington, DC 20013
Mr. Nguyen Duc Nam

TIEN PHONG MAGAZINE
15 North Highland St.
Arlington, VA 22201
Mr. Nguyen Thanh Hoang

XAC DINH MAGAZINE
P.O. Box 4087
Arlington, VA 22204
Mr. Nguyen Dinh Thang

DIEN DAN TU DO
P.O. Box 22540
Alexandria, VA 22304
703-425-3357
Mr. Ngo Vuong Toai

RESETTLEMENT NEWS
8019 Fig Street
New Orleans, LA 70125

NGAY NAY NEWSPAPER
811 Stuart
Houston, TX 77006
713-506-5352

VIETNAM HAI NGOAI
P.O. Box 33627
San Diego, CA 92103
714-291-5301
Mr. Dinh Thach Bich

SAN DIEGO TIN TUC
P.O. Box 5776
San Diego, CA 92105
619-283-9289
Mr. Phan Lac Tiep, Editor

CHI LINH
10710 Westminister
Garden Grove, CA 92643
714-539-5593

Indochinese (continued)

DAN VIET MAGAZINE
Box 243
Apopka, FL 32703
305-671-5818
Mr. Lam Khac Nghiem
(Lac Viet Cultural Organization)

DONG NAI NEWSPAPER
10132 Johannah Avenue
Garden Grove, CA 92644
714-893-2588

TRAI TIM DUC ME
P.O. Box 836
Carthage, MO 64836

TIENG VIET
9935 Westminister Avenue
Garden Grove, CA 92644
714-638-9212

NGAY NAY MAGAZINE
410 West [illegible]st Street
Wichita, KS 67203
316-836-9511

NGUOI VIET - DAILY NEWS
14841 Moran Street
Westminister, CA 92683
714-892-9414
Do Ngoc Yen

DAN CHUA
P.O. Box 1429
Gretna, LA 70053
504-392-1630

KICH ANH MAGAZINE
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Westminister, CA 92683
714-895-6930

TIN VIET
2619 West Edinger
Suite E-1
Santa Ana, CA 92704
714-549-9430

DAN TOC MAGAZINE
842 S. First St.
Second Floor
San Jose, CA 95110
408-297-3988
Mr. Ha Tuc Dao

VIETNAM NHAT BAO
5413 W. First St.
#A-D-E
Santa Ana, CA 92705
714-554-1323
Mr. Phung Minh Tien

VIETNAM MAGAZINE
345 E. Santa Clara St.
#102
San Jose, CA 95113
408-292-3422
Mr. Guyen Thao

VIETNAM TU DO NEWSPAPER
Van Dao & Lintner Bldg.
1102 W. 17th St..
Suite 118-119
Santa Ana, CA 92706
714-542-8042
Mr. Duy Sinh

TIN BIEN
1257 Runshaw Place
San Jose, CA 95121

Indochinese (continued)

DOI MAGAZINE
P.O. Box 4658
Irvine, CA 92716
714-552-7728
Mr. Nguyen Sa

DONG PHUONG
P.O. Box 306
San Jose, CA 95103
408-926-0898

DAT MOI MAGAZINE
2103 South Atlantic St.
Seattle, WA 98144
206-323-8438
Mr. Nguyen Van Giang

WORLD JOURNAL
210 Mississippi Street
San Francisco, CA 94107
Mr. Thai Dan Liet

Japan

AKAHATA
978 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-393-5238
Tetsumaro Shimuna

CHUNICHI-TOKYO SHIMBUN
837 National Press Bldg
Washington, DC 20045
202-783-1689
Shigeo Hayashi (Chief)

THE JAPAN TIMES
203 N. Emerson St.
Arlington, VA 22203
703-549-1555
Ayako Doi

KYODO NEWS SERVICE
1230 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-737-2817
Hiroshi Fujita (Chief)

N.H.K.
452 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
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Shiuchiro Sunohara

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636 National Press Bldg.
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Yashuhiro Tase

Japan (continued)

NIHON SHUNBUN KYOKAI
The Newspaper Center
11600 Sunrise Valley Dr.
Reston, VA 22091
703-648-1000
Hyde Sakata

SANKEI SHIMBUN
530 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-662-7193
Ishikawa Sotaro

YOMIURI SHIMBUN
802 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-783-0363
Shoichi Hori (Chief)

FOCUS
P.O. Box 1684
Paramus, NJ 07653
Kazumoto Ohno

NEWSWEEK JAPAN MAGAZINE
444 Madison Avenue
9th Floor
New York, NY 10022
212-350-4890
Aoki Fukiko

JOSEI JISHIN WEEKLY
342 East 79th St.
New York, NY 10021
Hamado Yoku

Korea

DONG-A ILBO
1115 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-347-4097
John-Moon Chung

KYUNGHYANG SHINMUN
821 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-737-3459
Ku Yoon

(SEOUL) JOONGANG ILBO
819 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-347-0121
Bureau Chief: Nam-Kyu Han

YONHAP NEWS AGENCY
1299 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
Yong-Bom Kim

HANKOOK ILBO
Korea Times (English)
1125 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-783-2674
Jae Seung Lee

(SEOUL) CHOSUN ILBO
1065 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-783-4236
Yong Shik Byun

CHO SUN DAILY NEWS
5600 Orange Thorpe Ave.
#1708
La Palma, CA 90623
714-523-1027
Bureau Chief: Tae Jin O

KOREA HERALD SYNDICATED
6245 Lindley Avenue
Reseda, CA 91335

Phillipines

PHILLIPINES DAILY EXPRESS
P.O. Box 75009
Washington, DC 20013
202-775-1113
Edward R'Church

MANILA BULLETIN
(Philippine Consulate)
556 5th Avenue
New York City, NY 10036
212-704-0998

APPENDIX D

Asian Television and Radio

China

CHINA TELEVISION SERVICE
1049 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-662-8950
Bureau Chief: Diane Lee

CHINA TELEVISION CO.
56-73 E. Hampton Blvd.
Bayside, NY 11364
718-224-2602
Liu Yung

UNITED CHINESE TELEVISION LTD.
97-40 62nd Drive, 2J
Rego Park, NY 11374
Shio-ping Chen

RADIO BEIJING
3401 Calvert St., NW # 604
Washington, DC 20008
Bureacu Chief: Xinglong Fan

Japan

ASAHI NATIONAL BROADCAST CO., LTD
650 5th Avenue
Rockefeller Center
Suite 1915
New York, NY 10111
212-489-7928
Kato Kazuhiro

FUJI TELECASTING LTD.
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Washington, DC 20045
202-347-1600
Bureau Chief: Atsuo Nakahara

JAPAN BROADCASTING CORP. (N.H.K.)
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Washington, DC 20045
202-393-1076
Iida Kenichi

Japan (continued)

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Washington, DC 20045
202-662-7625
Bureau Chief: Toyohiko Akiyama

FUJI TELEVISION NETWORK INC.
645 5th Avenue, 8th Floor
New York, NY 10022
212-753-1911
Asai Masaki

TV TOKYO - CHANNEL 12
803 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-662-8925
Ichiro Murata

MAINICHI BROADCASTING SYSTEM
1271 Avenue of the Americas, #4659
New York, NY 10020
212-581-1960

RADIO NIPPON CO., LTD.
333 East 30th Street
New York, NY 10016
212-889-1763
Kiyoshi Nasu

Korea

KOREAN BROADCASTING SYSTEM
1076 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
202-662-7345
Kwang Kyun Oh

MBC RADIO/TV
3475 West 8th Street, #105
Los Angeles, CA
213-384-9051
Don Jim Kim

Philippines

MANILA BROADCASTING SYSTEM
3460 Wilshire Blvd., # 1216
Los Angeles, CA 90010
213-480-1112
Bureau Chief: Eric Furbeyre

APPENDIX E

"On July 2, 1964, Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

Title VII of this Act,

"Equal Employment Opportunity," prohibits discrimination because of race, color, religion, sex or national origin, in hiring, upgrading and all other conditions of employment. It became effective on July 2,1965.

Title VII established the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission composed of five members appointed by the President and approved by the Senate.

The Commission is concerned with discrimination by four major groups--employers, public and private employment agencies, labor organizations and joint labor-management apprenticeship programs.

... In addition, the Commission promotes programs of affirmative action by employers, labor organizations and employment agencies to put the principle of equal employment opportunity into practice."

Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, Annual Report of EEOC 1967, 1.

I. INTRODUCTION

From the 1960's until 1980, Federal, State and Local governments supported Black progress. At the Federal level especially, legal, social and economic policies were used to rectify decades of racism, exclusion and poverty. The Civil Rights Act of 1964, Affirmative Action, Equal Opportunity, The War on Poverty, job training programs, and full-employment policies created new opportunities and brought many Blacks into the economic mainstream. Recalling this period, Roger Wilkins, a Black senior analyst at the Institute for Policy Studies has concluded, "while government cannot be our salvation, it must always be our ally."

Regardless of past alliances, the reality of the final two decades of this century is that government support for the disadvantaged will continue to erode. The concern, given voice by Franklin Delano Roosevelt, that government not neglect the "forgotten man" has been washed away in a flood of benefits for the rich, largely white upper class. The forgotten people have once again sunk beneath the surface of the government's consciousness.

This dissolution of the governmental commitment to the "forgotten" of this country has affected every poor, minority, or female American: Poverty has been blamed on the poor and the welfare state; social programs have been gutted; civil rights have been ridiculed and attacked.

Blacks have suffered greatly. The Reagan "recovery" has yielded little economic progress - income inequality is increasing, high unemployment continues and poverty remains acute.

* The median income for a Black family of four is less than 2/3 that of a white family. The ratio of white to Black income is lower than 1975 or 1970 figures.

* The median net worth of white families was 12 times greater than Black families. Nearly a third of Black households have no major assets.

* One third of all Blacks live in poverty. Family poverty was three times that for white families. Nearly half of Black children under the age of 18 live in poverty. Nearly 2 million Blacks fell below the poverty line between 1979 and 1984.

* Black unemployment is more than double that of the white workforce.

Ironically, Blacks have also moved forward in small but significant ways. Black elected officials numbered in 1988 roughly 6,500, about 4,750 more than in 1970. These numbers lag far behind other groups in the population. (Blacks lag a full ten percentage points behind whites in the proportion of people pursuing a managerial or professional specialty: 26.1% for Whites; 16.0% for Blacks.) But represent large improvements nonetheless.

One of the contributing factors in Black affluence has been the union movement. In 1988, the Black union member made $417 per week as opposed to the non union Black who only made $314 per week. Additionally, the Black union member made more than the white non union worker who only made $368 a week. FAST believes a "respectable wage" provided by a union contract represents an authentic self-help program.

Black workers have unquestionably recognized the importance of the unions. In 1988, over 2,559,000 were members of trade unions, reflecting approximately 22.9% of the Black workforce and 2,898,000 were represented by unions, which represents approximately 25.9% of the Black workforce.

We at FAST are proud of our unions' multiracial membership and of our role in organizing Black workers in every major region of the country. Working together with community groups, churches and small businesses, the labor movement will continue to prove that unions make a difference in the daily lives of Black wage-earners.

Understanding the demographics and cultural history of Blacks is essential to better realize their needs as a constituency. As part of this effort, we believe a Black worker's manual will prove useful to our members, organizers, staffers, officials and to those who share our concerns and goals.

II. POPULATION

The 1980 Census counted 26.5 million Blacks, or 11.7% of the total US population of 226.5 million. The 11.7% proportion of the total population in 1980 is the highest it has been since the end of the 19th century. Between 1970 and 1980, the Black population grew by almost 4 million, an increase of 17%. Based on projections by the Population Reference Bureau, the Black population in 1995 will be 33.7 million, accounting for 12% of the labor force. This increase will constitute 20% of all additions to the labor force.

Blacks are expected to make up a larger share of the future labor force primarily due to their higher birth rates over the last twenty years. The median age for Blacks was 26.1 and 31.3 for whites. The Black population is younger and will continue to grow faster than the white population even if fertility, mortality and migration rates are equal for both groups.

A. Population Distribution

Over half of all Blacks live in the South. In 1980, Blacks comprised more than 20% of the population in 7 states, all of which were in the South.

Table 8

Population of Blacks in Southern U.S.
1980
(percentage)

State	% of Blacks
Mississippi	35%
South Carolina	30%
Louisiana	29%
Georgia	27%
Alabama	26%
Maryland	23%
North Carolina	22%

Table 9 lists all 50 states and the District of Columbia by the number of Blacks living there. Some 12 states had a Black population of 1 million or more. Michigan, Ohio and Virginia reached the 1 million mark between 1970 and 1980. New York, California, Texas and Illinois have the largest numbers of Blacks.

Table 9

Black Population
1980

Rank	State	Number	Rank	State	Number
1	New York	2,402,000	27	Kansas	126,000
2	California	1,819,000	28	Washington	106,000
3	Texas	1,710,000	29	Colorado	102,000
4	Illinois	1,675,000	30	Delaware	96,000
5	Georgia	1,465,000	31	Arizona	75,000
6	Florida	1,343,000	32	West Virginia	65,000
7	N. Carolina	1,319,000	33	Minnesota	53,000
8	Louisiana	1,238,000	34	Nevada	51,000
9	Michigan	1,199,000	35	Nebraska	48,000
10	Ohio	1,077,000	36	Iowa	42,000
11	Pennsylvania	1,047,000	37	Oregon	37,000
12	Virginia	1,009,000	38	Rhode Island	28,000
13	Alabama	996,000	39	New Mexico	24,000
14	Maryland	958,000	40	Hawaii	17,000
15	S. Carolina	949,000	41	Alaska	14,000
16	New Jersey	925,000	42	Utah	9,000
17	Mississippi	887,000	43	N. Hampshire	4,000
18	Tennessee	726,000	44	Idaho	3,000
19	Missouri	514,000	45	Maine	3,000
20	Indiana	415,000	46	N. Dakota	3,000
21	Arkansas	374,000	47	Wyoming	3,000
22	Kentucky	259,000	48	Montana	2,000
23	Massachusetts	221,000	49	S. Dakota	2,000
24	Connecticut	217,000	50	Vermont	1,000
25	Oklahoma	205,000	District of Columbia		449,000(20)
26	Wisconsin	183,000			

Source: Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, America's Black Population: 1970 to 1982 Special Publication PIO/POP-83-1, July 1983.

The Black population has remained essentially urban since 1970 with over 57% living in the central cities. This figure was slightly lower than the previous figure of 60% in 1970, although most large cities have shown increases in the number of Blacks since 1960.

The 1980 Census found that New York had the greatest number of Blacks, with over 1,784,337, while Chicago ranked second with a Black population of 1,197,000. Detroit was third with 758,939, Philadelphia fourth with 638,878 and Los Angeles fifth with 505,210.

In 1980, of the 100 cities with the largest Black population, 17 had Black populations of 50% or more. Table 10 shows the 100 cities containing the greatest number of Blacks and the 100 cities with populations of at least 40,000 that contain the highest percentage of Blacks.

Table 10

100 Cities With the Largest Black Population by Rank: 1980

Rank	City	Black Population Number	Percent of Total	Total Population
	United States	26,495,025	11.7	226,545,805
1	New York, NY	1,784,337	25.2	7,071,639
2	Chicago, IL	1,197,000	9.8	3,005,072
3	Detroit, MI	758,939	63.1	1,203,339
4	Philadelphia, PA	638,878	37.8	1,688,210
5	Los Angeles, CA	505,210	17.0	2,966,850
6	Washington, DC	448,906	70.3	638,333
7	Houston, TX	440,346	27.6	1,595,138
8	Baltimore, MD	431,151	54.8	786,775
9	New Orleans, LA	308,149	55.3	557,515
10	Memphis, TN	307,702	47.6	646,356
11	Atlanta, GA	282,911	66.6	425,022
12	Dallas, TX	265,594	29.4	904,078
13	Cleveland, OH	251,347	43.8	573,822
14	St. Louis, MO	206,386	45.6	453,085
15	Newark, NJ	191,745	58.2	329,248
16	Oakland, CA	159,281	46.9	339,337
17	Birmingham, AL	158,224	55.6	284,413
18	Indianapolis, IN	152,626	21.8	700,807
19	Milwaukee, WI	146,940	23.1	636,212
20	Jacksonville, FL	137,324	25.4	540,920
21	Cincinnati, OH	130,467	33.8	385,457
22	Boston, MA	126,229	22.4	562,994
23	Columbus, OH	124,880	22.1	564,871
24	Kansas City, MO	122,699	27.4	448,159
25	Richmond, VA	112,357	51.3	219,214
26	Gary, IN	107,644	70.8	151,953
27	Nashville, TN	105,942	23.3	455,651
28	Pittsburgh, PA	101,813	24.0	423,938
29	Charlotte, NC	97,627	31.0	314,447
30	Jackson, MS	95,357	47.0	202,895

Table 10 (continued)

100 Cities With the Largest Black Population by Rank: 1980

Rank	City	Black Population Number	Percent of Total	Total Population
31	Buffalo, NY	95,116	26.6	357,870
32	Norfolk, VA	93,987	35.2	266,979
33	Fort Worth, TX	87,723	22.8	385,164
34	Miami, FL	87,110	25.1	346,865
35	San Francisco, CA	86,414	12.7	678,974
36	Shreveport, LA	84,627	41.1	205,820
37	Louisville, KY	84,080	28.2	298,451
38	Baton Rouge, LA	80,088	36.5	219,419
39	San Diego, CA	77,700	8.9	875,538
40	Dayton, OH	75,016	36.9	203,371
41	Mobile, AL	72,568	36.2	200,452
42	Montgomery, AL	69,660	39.2	177,857
43	Savannah, GA	69,241	49.0	141,390
44	Flint, MI	66,124	41.4	159,611
45	East Orange, NJ	64,626	83.2	77,690
46	Tampa, FL	63,835	23.5	271,523
47	Rochester, NY	62,332	25.8	241,741
48	Jersey City, NJ	61,954	27.7	223,532
49	Toledo, OH	61,750	17.4	354,635
50	Compton, CA	60,812	74.8	81,286
51	Denver, CO	59,252	12.0	492,365
52	Oklahoma City, OK	58,702	14.6	403,213
53	Columbus, GA	57,884	34.2	169,441
54	San Antonio, TX	57,700	7.3	785,880
55	Inglewood, CA	54,010	57.3	94,245
56	Chattanooga, TN	53,716	31.7	169,565
57	Winston-Salem, NC	52,968	40.2	131,885
58	East St. Louis, IL	52,751	95.6	55,200
59	Akron, OH	52,719	22.2	237,177
60	Macon, GA	52,068	44.5	116,896
61	Greensboro, NC	51,373	33.0	155,642
62	Little Rock, AR	51,091	23.2	158,461
63	Durham, NC	47,474	47.1	100,831
64	Portsmouth, VA	47,185	45.1	104,577
65	Paterson, NJ	47,091	34.1	137,970

Food and Allied Service Trades Department, AFL-CIO

Table 10 (continued)

100 Cities With the Largest Black Population by Rank: 1980

Rank	City	Black Population Number	Percent of Total	Total Population
66	Seattle, WA	46,755	9.5	493,846
67	Hartford, CT	46,186	33.9	136,392
68	Newport News, VA	45,584	31.5	144,903
69	Camden, NJ	45,008	53.0	84,910
70	Beaumont, TX	43,270	36.6	118,102
71	Tulsa, OK	42,594	11.8	360,919
72	Austin, TX	42,118	12.2	345,496
73	Hampton, VA	42,072	34.3	122,617
74	Trenton, NJ	41,860	45.4	92,124
75	Raleigh, NC	41,227	27.4	150,255
76	St. Petersburg, FL	41,000	17.2	238,647
77	Kansas City, KS	40,826	25.3	161,087
78	Long Beach, CA	40,738	11.3	361,334
79	Columbia, SC	40,703	40.2	101,208
80	New Haven, CT	40,235	31.9	126,109
81	Youngstown, OH	38,481	33.3	115,436
82	Orlando, FL	38,429	30.0	128,291
83	Omaha, NE	37,864	12.0	314,255
84	Phoenix, AZ	37,804	4.8	789,704
85	Sacramento, CA	36,866	13.4	275,741
86	Wilmington, DE	35,858	51.1	70,195
87	Richmond, CA	35,799	47.9	74,676
88	Albany, GA	35,297	47.7	74,059
89	Mount Vernon, NY	32,469	48.7	66,713
90	Charleston, SC	32,318	46.5	69,510
91	Fort Lauderdale, FL	32,225	21.0	153,279
92	East Cleveland, OH	31,980	86.5	36,957
93	Chesapeake, VA	31,600	27.6	114,486
94	Wichita, KS	30,200	10.8	279,272
95	Bridgeport, CT	29,898	21.0	142,546

Table 10 (continued)

100 Cities With the Largest Black Population by Rank: 1980

Rank	City	Black Population Number	Percent of Total	Total Population
96	Huntsville, AL	29,535	20.7	142,513
97	San Jose, CA	29,186	4.6	629,442
98	Prichard, AL	29,129	73.7	39.541
99	Grand Rapids, MI	28,602	15.7	181,843
100	Pontiac, MI	28,532	37.2	76,715

Source: We, The Black Americans, US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, March 1986.

The historical migration of Blacks from South to the North appears to have reversed itself for the time being. During the 1970's, according to the Bureau of the Census, roughly 709,000 moved South while only about 500,000 left the region for a net gain in the South of about 209,000 people.

Table 11 shows the net migration by region since 1910. It shows the number of Blacks that left or entered the South, Northeast, North Central, and Western parts of the United States.

Table 11

Net Migration of Blacks
By Region: 1910-20 to 1975-80

Period	South	Northeast	North Central	West
1910-20	-454,000	+182,000	+244,000	+ 28,000
1920-30	-749,000	+349,000	+364,000	+ 36,000
1930-40	-347,000	+171,000	+128,000	+ 49,000
1940-50	-1,599,000	+463,000	+618,000	+329,000
1950-60	-1,473,000	+496,000	+541,000	+293,000

Table 11 (continued)

Net Migration of Blacks
By Region: 1910-20 to 1975-80

Period	South	Northeast	North Central	West
1960-70	-1,380,000	+612,000	+382,000	+301,000
1970-75	+14,000	- 64,000	- 52,000	+102,000
1975-80	+ 195,000	-175,000	- 51,000	+ 30,000

Sources: 1910-1970: Bureau of the Census. "The Social and Economic Status of the Black Population in the United States: An Historical View, 1790-1978," Current Population Reports Series P-23, No. 80, 1979.

Table 11 shows that Blacks were migrating away from the Northeast and North Central regions of the U.S. during the 1970's. Workers in basic manufacturing industries such as autos, steel, machine parts, and electrical equipment, primarily located in the North, have been hardest hit by the ongoing transformation of U.S. industry. Out of 5.1 million adult workers displaced by plant closings or employment cutbacks during 1979 though 1984, Black workers accounted for 600,000 or 11.8%.

Segregation remains a stain on the American social fabric. The proportion of Blacks living in integrated neighborhoods has only risen slightly since 1970. According to the Urban Institute's Public Finance and Housing Center, the percentage of Blacks living in areas that were more than 90% Black fell to 31.0% from 36.6% in 1980. The proportion of Blacks residing in low income housing fell from 80% to 60% by 1980.

Blacks have been moving to the suburbs in recent times. Time magazine found in 1988 that 25% of Black families lived in the suburbs. Whether these suburbs were an improvement over the city and whether the neighborhoods were integrated was not mentioned in the Time article.

Many Blacks still remain in hard-core, inner city ghettoes where opportunities are limited, jobs are scarce, schools are under funded, and crime is rampant. The so-called "under-class" has become a major topic of discussion for government officials, television commentators and the Black community.

III. INCOME

Black median income has fallen during the past 12 years. Prior to this period, Black income rose steadily from 1967 to 1978. Black median income peaked in 1978, reaching 61% of white and 88% of Hispanic income. Beginning in 1979, it declined, reaching a low of $15,155 in 1982. In 1987, Black median income was 57% of white median income.

The upward mobility of Blacks has increased dramatically since the 1960's, when only 13% of Black families were considered middle class. Today, a third of all Black families earn between $25,000 and $50,000. A growing disparity, however, is emerging in income levels between the Black middle class and the Black lower class, sometimes referred to as the "underclass." According to economist and director of several Fortune 500 companies, Andrew F. Brimmer, the top one-fifth of Black families held 47.4% of total U.S. Black income, while the bottom fifth accounted for only 3.4%. In 1986, a staggering 14% of Black families earned less than $5,000 a year.

The most serious drop in Black income levels occurred in 1982, when Black median income plummeted to 55% of white income. Although unemployment was the largest factor for the decline in income, Reagan budget-cuts also seriously eroded income beyond the low level of labor-force participation. The public sector has traditionally been a source of stable, well paying jobs for Blacks. One effect of the budget cuts was that minority workers were laid off at a 50% higher rate than whites.

The Urban Institute found that between 1980 and 1984 Blacks in every income strata lost earnings and had less disposable income after adjusting for inflation. They report that Black America in 1982 (the latest year for which this particular data is available) had after-tax income that was $3.1 billion lower than in 1980.

Black per capita income has been consistently less than half the figure for the white population. Per capita is the mean income computed for every man, woman and child in a particular group. Per capita income is derived by dividing the total income of a particular group by the total population (excluding patients or inmates in institutional quarters). (See Table 12)

Table 12

Population and Per Capita Money Income from 1967 to 1985 by Race

Population	All Races	White	Black
1985	236,749,000	201,019,000	28,538,000

Per Capita Money Income (1985 Dollars)
Proportion of Black Income to White Income

Year	Total	White	Black	Percent
1985	11,013	11,671	6,840	59%
1983	10,310	10,933	6,214	57%
1981	10,026	10,621	6,097	57%
1979	10,623	11,225	6,586	59%
1975	9,630	10,138	5,940	59%
1971	9,076	9,552	5,477	57%
1967	7,939	8,390	4,517	54%

Source: Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Money Income and Poverty Status of Families and Persons in the United States: 1985 Table 13. p. 19.

There has been a 20% increase in the number of Blacks who earn 25,000 to 50,000 a year since the 1960's. The number of middle class Blacks stands at around 33% in 1989. There has also been an explosion of wealthy Blacks. The Census Bureau reports that about 9.7% of all Blacks earn more than $50,000 per year. The gain is significant but does not rival the proportion of white people earning over $50,000 a year, about 20%.

Here, as in other areas of progress there is a grim side. Black net worth is 12 times lower than White net worth. In 1985, the average net worth of Black families was only $3,397, as opposed to the average for Whites which was $39,135. Almost 1/3 of the Black households had a zero net worth. Blacks, constituting only 11.7%, of the general population, comprise over 28% of all households with negative worth. Over 76% Black wealth is in homes, motor vehicles and checking accounts. Only 11.6% of Black wealth is in interest-earning assets i.e. stocks, mutual funds, etc.

Black home ownership has not significantly increased in the past two decades. From 1970 to 1980, the percent of Blacks owning their homes rose only by 2%. Less than half of all Blacks lived in homes they either owned or were buying.

Black income distribution is weighted towards the bottom. For example, slightly less than half of the Black families have earnings under $15,000, and 13.5% are under $5000. For Whites, income distribution is radically different. Almost 4/5 of White families have earnings above $15,000. Only 4% earn $5,000 or less. The Black population does have a small elite, earning $50,000 or more. (See Table 11) However, even the elite experience wage inequality when compared to Whites. Black male professionals earn only 86% of their White co-workers salaries.

Table 11

Income in 1985 - Families, by Total Income

	Total	White	Black
Income (in thousands)	$63,558	$54,991	$6,921

In 1985 Dollars, by Race

Percent	Total	White	Black
Under 2,500	1.9	1.6	4.2
2,500 to 4,999	2.9	2.1	9.3
5,000 to 7,499	4.2	3.5	9.4
7,500 to 9,999	4.3	3.9	7.7
10,000 to 12,499	5.2	4.8	7.9
12,500 to 14,999	5.0	4.9	6.4
15,000 to 19,999	10.5	10.3	13.0
20,000 to 24,999	10.3	10.4	9.0
25,000 to 34,999	18.6	19.2	14.3
35,000 to 49,999	18.8	19.7	11.8
50,000 and over	18.3	19.6	9.7

Source: Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census, Money Income and Poverty Status of Families and Persons in the United States: 1985 Table 3. p. 10.

FOCUS ON:

BLACK WORKERS

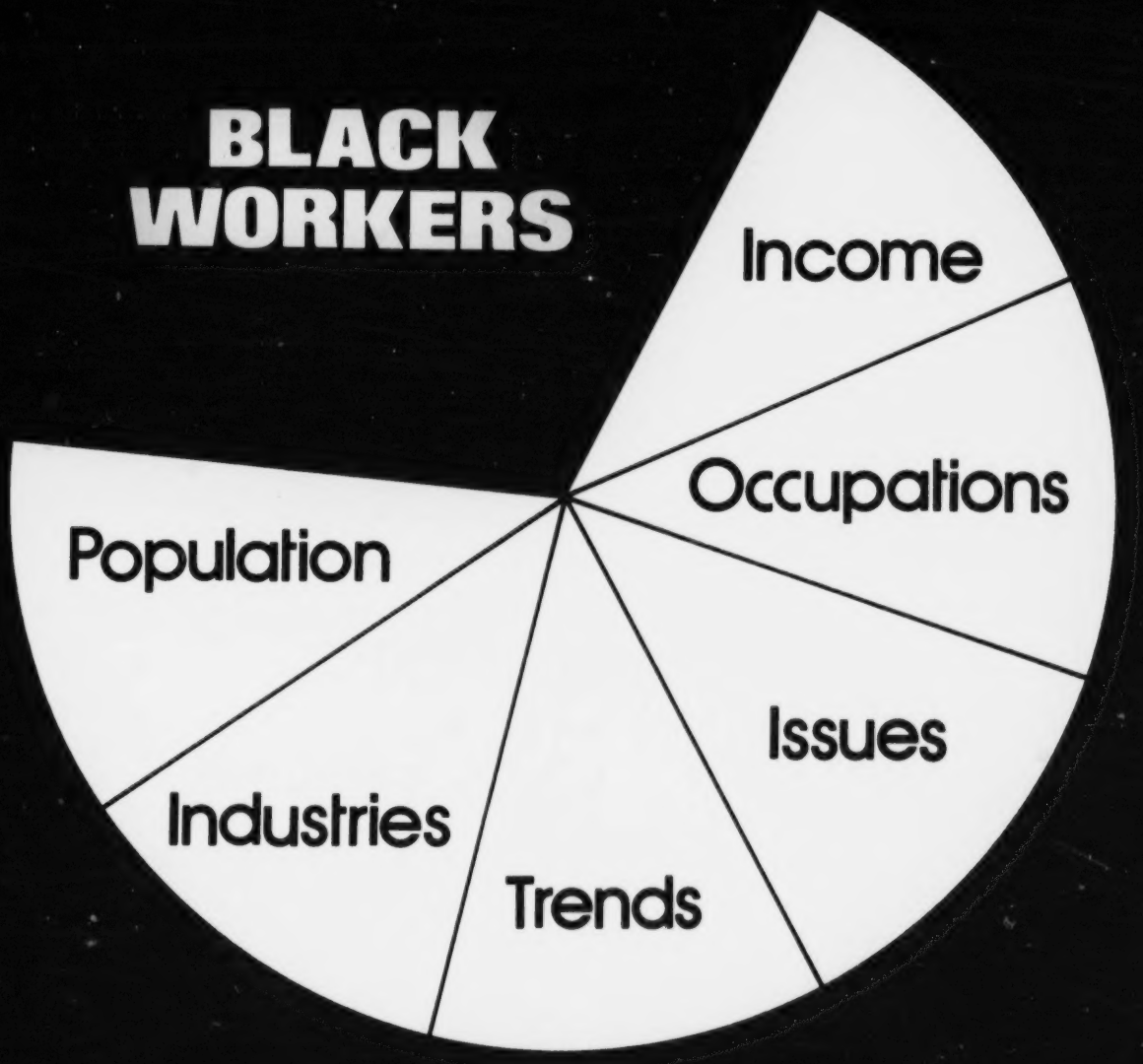

Table 14

Percent change of Annual Median Family Income for Blacks and Whites (1970-1985)

Years	Blacks	Whites
1970-75	+.008	+.0056
1975-80	-.057	+.0027
1980-85	+.014	+.0200
1970-85	-.035	-.0162

Source: Economic Report of the President, 1987, Table B-29, p. 278.

IV. POVERTY

A large body of literature exists which explains the persistence of poverty among Blacks. Depending on the authors' own interests and political views, the reasons advanced to explain Black poverty can range from moral laxity to an over-dependence on welfare to racism, lack of education, improper skills, poorly-paid jobs, and economic displacement.

Whatever insight has been gained in the literature, the problem remains. The percentage of Blacks who are poor has remained the same in the past 15 years and many poor are working at suppressed wage-levels.

Blacks remain disproportionately poor. In 1985, the poverty rate for Blacks was almost three times that of whites. The Census Bureau estimated 31.6% of all Blacks were poor in 1988. In contrast, only 13.1% of the general population was poor. The Black poverty rate was at the same level in 1988 as it was in the early seventies.

Black families, likewise, are disproportionately poor. Three times more Black families were poor in 1985 than white families. In 1985, the national poverty rate for all families was 11.4%. However, 28.7% of all Black families were poor. For whites, 9.1% of all families were poor. Again, a 3:1 Black to white ratio.

Almost 1/2 of all Black children are poor. In 1985, the national poverty rate for all children (under the age of 18) was an astounding 20.5%. Over 12.8 million American children lived in poverty, 43.4% of these children were Black. (4.1 million Black children were below the poverty line.) Fifty percent of Black children under the age of six were poor.

The noted author, Marian Wright Edelman of the Children's Defense Fund, in two recent books entitled Portrait of Inequality: Black and White Children in America and Families in Peril, has graphically described the plight of children in poverty. According to Edelman, Black children suffer the most:

* A Black baby is twice as likely to die during the first year of his life as a white.

* Black teenagers die of heart and congenital defects at twice the rate of white teenagers.

* Black children are twice as likely as white children to have no regular source of health care.

* A Black baby is twice as apt to be born and locked into poverty throughout his childhood.

* A Black child's mother goes out earlier to work, works longer hours and is paid less.

* A Black child is twice as apt to live with neither parent and to grow up in a family whose head has not finished high school.

* As a teenager a Black child is twice as likely to be arrested for serious property crimes and again twice as likely to be detained in a juvenile or adult correctional facility.

* If both of a Black child's parents work, they earn half what an equivalent white couple earns.

* A Black child is twice as likely to drop out of school, twice as apt to lag in grade level, half as apt to be termed gifted and three times as likely to be labeled mentally retarded.

* A Black child's path is an uphill struggle against odds and the longer remains in school the more he lags.

* If a Black child graduates from high school his chance for employment is less than of a white who drops out of elementary school; the odds for his employment if he is a college graduate is equal to those of a white high school dropout.

* A Black child has no fair chance to live, learn, succeed and contribute in America.

Black poverty, especially among children, is concentrated in female-headed households. In 1987, 43.1% of all Black families were maintained by women. It has been estimated that over 60% of all Black female-headed households are poor; social theorists have described this as the "feminization of poverty." This particular segment of the poverty population has become the subject and focus of public debate by the government and by the Black community.

For over a decade and a half, poverty has steadily increased among all sectors of the population except the elderly. Starting in 1970, 25.4 million Americans were in poverty, or only 12.6% of the population. By 1979, 26.1 million Americans were poor, 11.7% of the population. From 1979 to 1983, America's poverty population increased, growing by over 9.2 million to 15.2%.

The number of Blacks living in poverty rose between 1970 and 1983. In 1970, there were 7.5 million (33.5%) who were poor. By 1979, eight million (31.0%) Blacks were below the poverty line, or 31%. From 1979 to 1983, the number of poverty stricken Blacks has increased to 9.9 million, or 35.7%. This 1970-1983 period is in sharp contrast to 1959-1970, a time of considerable social, legal and economic progress when the Black poverty rate fell from 55% to 31%.

In the last several years, conservatives have begun to boast about the decline in the national poverty rate. Indeed, the national poverty rate slipped from a high of 15.2% in 1983 to 14% in 1985. Ignoring the impact their economic policies have had on poverty, conservatives have claimed a victory for their economic policies. However, they fail to mention that 14% represents the highest rate for a non-recessionary year since 1966.

Conservatives have also claimed credit for the recent decline in the Black poverty rate. By 1985, the Black poverty rate had slipped to 31.8%.

Table 15

White and Black Poverty by Family and Persons Below the Poverty Line

Year	Families (millions)	Rate	Persons (millions)	Rate
All Races				
1979	5.5	9.2%	26.1	11.7%
1980	6.2	10.3%	29.3	13.0%
1981	6.9	11.2%	31.8	14.0%
1982	7.5	12.2%	34.4	15.0%
1983	7.6	12.3%	35.3	15.2%
1984	7.3	11.6%	33.7	14.4%
1985	7.2	11.4%	33.1	14.0%
White				
1979	3.6	6.9%	17.2	9.0%
1980	4.2	8.0%	19.7	10.2%
1981	4.7	8.8%	21.6	11.1%
1982	5.1	9.6%	23.5	12.0%
1983	5.2	9.7$	24.0	12.1%
1984	4.9	9.1%	23.0	11.5%
1985	5.0	9.1%	22.9	11.4%
Blacks				
1979	1.7	27.8%	8.1	31.0%
1980	1.8	28.9%	8.6	32.5%
1981	2.0	30.8%	9.2	34.2%
1982	2.2	33.0%	9.7	35.6%
1983	2.2	32.3%	9.9	35.7%
1984	2.1	30.9%	9.5	33.8%
1985	2.0	28.7%	8.9	31.8%

Source: Economic Report of the President, January 1987, Table B-29, p. 278.

Almost 6.4% of the poor, of all colors, should justly be called the working poor. In testimony before the House of Representatives, Sheldon Danziger of the University of Wisconsin and Peter Gottschalk of Bowdoin College have set the number of the "working poor" households at 6.6 million or an estimated 15.8 million Americans. The two scholars defined the working poor as households headed by persons who are expected to work and do work. Such characterizations rebuke the common perception of the poor as shiftless, indolent or unwilling to work.

According to Danziger and Gottschalk, the amount of those people just above the poverty line has substantially increased. Low-earners, one rung above the working poor, are defined as household heads who earn less than $204 a week in 1984 dollars. Between 1967 and 1979, the percentage of low wage earners in the workforce was 19%. By 1984, their numbers have increased to 26%. Danziger and Gottschalk estimate that there were 17 million low-earner households in 1984.

Many of the working poor and the low wage earners work at extremely suppressed wage-levels or at minimum wage. 42.5% of impoverished families had workers who were employed at the minimum wage level. 32.9% of the low wage earners who work earn the minimum wage. For Blacks, over 14% make only the minimum wage ($3.35, or an annual income of $6,968).

A. Unemployment

The unemployment rate for Blacks in August 1989 was 10.6%.

Black unemployment for the past 14 years has been double that for the white labor force. The worst year for Black unemployment was 1983 when almost 20% of the Black labor force was unemployed. Table 16 outlines the history of Black unemployment between 1972 and 1989.

Table 16

Unemployment Rate 1972-1989

	Total	White	Black
1972	5.6	5.1	10.4
1974	5.6	5.0	10.5
1976	7.7	7.0	14.0
1978	6.1	5.2	12.8
1980	7.1	6.3	14.3
1982	9.7	8.6	18.9
1984	7.4	6.5	15.9
1986	7.0	6.0	14.5
1987			
1988 (Aug)	5.0	4.4	10.6
1989 (Aug)	4.6	3.9	10.5

Source: Economic Report of the President, January 1987, Table B-35, p. 285
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Earnings, August, 1989, A-11 p. 19.

V. LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

There are 13,215,000 Blacks in the civilian labor force out of a total of 20.5 million Blacks living in the United States. Fifty-seven percent of all Blacks, including those not in the labor force, are employed. Thirty-six percent of Blacks were not in the labor force.

Most working-age Blacks not in the labor force cited keeping house as the reason they were working or seeking work. Others cited going to school (21%), unable to work (9%), and other reasons (32%).

The occupational distribution for Blacks (male and female) is radically different than that of whites and distinct from workers of Hispanic origin. The number of Black professionals has increased in the past 15 years. Sixteen percent of the Black workforce was classified in 1988 as managerial or professional, compared to 4% in 1940, 9% in 1960, and 10% in 1970. Although higher than Hispanics (13%), Blacks are still under-represented in the professions. Over 25% of the white labor force is classified as managerial or professional.

According to a US Department of Labor periodical, Employment in Perspective: Minority Workers 3rd Quarter 1986, "Blacks were more likely to be employed in the service-producing sector than Hispanics and whites. Nearly three fourths of all Black workers had jobs in this sector in 1985."

Black professionals are over-represented among public administrators, educational administrators, counselors, psychologists, the clergy and social workers. Their percent of Teachers at the elementary school level is about the same as the Black percent of the total population. Table 17 lists the overall occupational distribution of Blacks.

Table 17

Occupational Distribution
of Blacks, December, 1988
(11,938,000 Blacks in the Workforce)

Total(100%)	
Managerial or Professional	16.0%
Technical, Sales and Administrative Support	28.8%
Service	22.5%
Precision Production	8.7%
Fabricators and Laborers	23.0%
Farming, Forestry Fishing	1.0%

Source: Employment and Earnings, US Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, January, 1989. Table A-23. p. 36.

Managers and professionals as an occupational category includes a wide variety of vocations: executives and administrators; financial managers and purchasing managers; architects and engineers; computer programmers, analysts and scientists; physicians, dentists and registered nurses; teachers, counselors, college professors and librarians; social scientists, urban planners, psychologists, ministers, social workers; lawyers and judges; writers, athletes, and other entertainers.

The high and low rate occupations for Black workers are as follows for detailed occupational breakdowns provided by the Bureau of Labor Statistics:

1. Managerial and professional specialty (overall 6.1): Lows --financial managers 4.4, Managers, marketing, advertising, and public relations 3.6, administrators, protective service 4.4. Highs -- inspectors and compliance officers, except construction 14.4%

2. Professional Specialty 6.7%: Lows -- geologists and geodesists .8, authors .4, biological and life scientists 1.0, dentists 1.9%. Highs -- dietitian 18.8, educational and vocational counselors 14.9%, social workers 19.3%.

3. Technical sales and administrative support 9.1%: Lows -- airplane pilots and navigators 1.4, dental hygienists 3.2 Highs -- clinical laboratory technologists and technicians 14.2%, licensed practical nurses 19.1%.

4. Sales Occupations 6.1%: Lows -- securities and financial services sales 2.5%, sales-related occupations 1.3%; Highs -- cashiers 12.5%, sales workers, shoes 10.9

5. Administrative support, including clerical 11.3%: Lows -- dispatchers 7.3%, stenographers 3.2%; Highs -- postal clerks, except mail carriers 32.1, file clerks 18.8, data entry keyers 19.8, stock clerks 16.2%.

6. Service Occupations 17.6%: Lows -- hairdressers and cosmetologists 8.1, waiters and waitresses 3.9, bartenders 2.2, Highs -- guards and police, except public service 21.7%, data entry keyers 19.8%, cleaners and servants 32.0, correctional institution officers 22.8%, food counter, fountain and related occupations 12.5, short order cooks 27.4%, cleaning and building service occupations 23.0%.

7. Precision production, craft and repair 7.5%: Lows -- Small engine repairers 2.0, electrical power installers and repairers 4.3, optical goods workers 2.6, precision metalworking 6.0%; Highs -- aircraft engine mechanics 12.7, concrete finishers 26.6, butchers and meat cutters 17.0, brickmasons and stonemasons 16.3.

8. Operators fabricators and laborers 15.0%: Lows -- photoengravers and compositors 4.9%, typesetters and compositors 3.5%, drivers/sales workers 5.5, water transportation occupations 6.4; Highs -- pressing machine operators 28.1, textile sewing machine operators 37.4, bus drivers 23.2, vehicle washers 20.3, taxi drivers and chauffeurs 23.8%

9. Farmers, forestry, and fishing 6.5%: Lows -- farm operators 1.1, animal caretakers 8.9, fishers, hunters and trappers 3.1; Highs -- forestry and logging 11.2%,

The most unionized by industry were construction 21%, manufacturing 23.2, transportation 32.1, and communications 35.2, government workers 36.0.

By industry the least unionized are finance, insurance and real estate 2.3%, retail trade 6.7% wholesale trade 8.4%, agriculture 2.2%, services 6.3%.

Blacks are over represented in low-paying retail, administrative support, service and food preparation positions. Table 18 lists the Black percent of the total number of workers employed in selected occupations.

Table 18

Black % of Total in Selected Occupations:
1988

Occupation	Total Employed	Black % of Total
TECHNICAL, SALES AND ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT	35,532,000	9.1
Technicians and related support	3,521,000	9.4
Health Technologists and Technicians	1,226,000	14.2
Licensed practical nurses	423,000	19.1
Sales Occupations	13,747,000	6.1
Supervisors and Proprietors	3,658,000	4.3
Sales Workers, commodities, (except retail)	1,551,000	3.1
Sales Workers, retail and personnel services	6,068,000	8.9
Cashiers	2,337,000	12.5
Administrative Support (including clerical)	18,264,000	11.3
Supervisors	764,000	13.5
Computer equipment operators	869,000	14.4
Secretaries, stenographers, and typists	4,876,000	8.5
Typists	798,000	16.0
Information Clerks	1,479,000	9.1
Receptionists	848,000	7.4
Record processing occupation except financial	827,000	15.6
File Clerks	271,000	18.8
Financial Records processing	2,414,000	6.2
Bookkeepers, accountants, and auditing clerks	1,970,000	5.1
Telephone operators	210,000	19.2
Mail and Message Distributing	936,000	22.0
Traffic, shipping, and receiving clerks	521,000	15.9

Table 18 (continued)

Occupation	Total Employed	Black % of Total
Stock and Inventory Clerks	559,000	16.2
Adjusters and Investigators, Insurance	257,000	12.8
Bank Tellers	478,000	8.8
Data Entry keyers	362,000	19.6
General office Clerks	833,000	11.3
Teachers Aides	423,000	14.3
SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	15,332,000	17.6
Private Household	909,000	22.5
Child Care workers	378,000	8.8
Cleaners and Servants	476,000	32.0
Protective Service*	1,944,000	16.7
Firefighting and fire prevention	218,000	8.3
Police and detectives	755,000	15.8
Guards	796,000	20.1
Service except household and protective	12,479,000	17.4
Food preparation*	5,182,000	12.4
Bartenders	324,000	2.2
Waiters and Waitresses	1,363,000	3.9
Cooks, except short order	1,634,000	18.1
Short Order cooks	95,000	24.7
Food counter and fountain	325,000	12.5
Kitchen workers, food prep	132,000	16.9
Waiters and waitress' asst.	339,000	15.3
Health service occupations	1,977,000	28.2
Dental assistants	165,000	6.8
Health aides, except nursing	407,000	17.9
Nursing aides, orderlies	1,404,000	33.7
Cleaning and bldg. service	2,994,000	23.0
Maids and Housemen	644,000	29.0
Janitors and cleaners	2,133,000	21.1
Personal Service*	2,327,000	12.0
Barbers	94,000	13.3
Hairdressers and cosmetologists	769,000	8.1
Attendants (amusement or recreation)	130,000	6.7
Public Transport Attendants	77,000	15.9
Welfare service aides	92,000	24.0
Child care workers	853,000	13.3

Table 18 (continued)

Occupation	Total Employed	Black % of Total
PRECISION PRODUCTION, CRAFT AND REPAIR	13,664,000	7.5
Auto Mechanics	879,000	7.4
Aircraft Engine Mechanics	131,000	12.7
Automobile Body and Related Repairers	194,000	4.8
Electrical and Electronic Equipment Repairers	677,000	7.1
Heating, Air Conditioning, and Refrigeration Mechanics	262,000	3.7
Construction Trades	5,098,000	7.1
Carpet Installers	108,000	6.2
Electricians	701,000	4.1
Roofers	156,000	10.8
Concrete Finishers	85,000	26.6
Plumbers, Pipefitters, and Steamfitters	494,000	7.9
Precision Production Occupations	3,968,000	8.6
Machinists	497,000	6.3
Sheet Metal	126,000	8.0
Precision Woodworking	106,000	4.6
Precision Textile, apparel, and Furnishings	269,000	8.0
Electronic and Electrical Equipment Assemblers	305,000	12.1
Butchers and Meat Cutters	258,000	17.0
Bakers	126,000	10.0
OPERATORS, FABRICATORS AND LABORERS	17,814,000	15.0
Machine Operators, Assemblers, and Inspectors	8,117,000	14.8
Fabricators, assemblers, and hand working occupations	1,906,000	12.0
Production inspectors, testers, samplers and weighers	849,000	13.9
Motor Vehicle Operators	3,592,000	14.9
Truck Drivers, heavy	1,826,000	13.8
Bus Drivers	450,000	23.2
Taxi-Cab Drivers	218,000	23.8
Material Moving Equipment Operators	1,043,000	15.6
Handlers, equipment cleaners, helpers, and Laborers	4,866,000	15.5
Helpers, Construction Trades	156,000	13.8
Construction Laborers	799,000	15.1
Freight, Stock, and Material Handlers	1,756,000	15.8
Garage and Service Station	246,000	10.2
Vehicle Washers and Equipment Cleaners	253,000	20.3

Table 18 (continued)

Occupation	Total Employed	Black % of Total
Hand Packers and Packagers	298,000	14.4
Laborers, Except Construction	1,248,000	15.4
FARMING, FORESTRY AND FISHING	3,437	6.6

*Includes other occupations, not shown separately

Source: Employment and Earnings, Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Jan., 1989

VI. FAMILIES, WOMEN AND EDUCATION

Two important changes affecting Black family structure in the last 3 decades are the rise in single-parent, female-headed households and the increase in the number of Blacks born out of wedlock. Since poverty (58.4%) and unemployment (19.2%) rates among female-headed households is alarmingly high, almost half of Black children are growing up poor (42.7%). Both changes may be explained largely by the persistence of poverty amongst Blacks in both the inner-cities and rural areas.

Single parent households made up 28% of all households in 1970 and 43% in 1984. Black households with both parents present has dropped from 68.3% to 51.6% since 1968, indicating that the odds of Black children under the age of 18 currently living with both parents is about half. 41.5 percent of Black families were headed by women in 1986, an increase of 13.8% since 1968. White families headed by women increased only 4% during the same period, from 8.9% in 1968 to 12.9% in 1986.

The percentage of Blacks born out of wedlock in 1968 was 31.9%, rising to 60.1% in 1985. For whites, the percentage of children born out of wedlock was 5.3% in 1968 and 14.5% in 1985.

Despite the alarming sound of these statistics, generalizing about them may be spurious. For example, the Alan Guttmacher Institute reports that low-income white teenage girls have babies out of wedlock as often as low-income Black teenage girls. This seems to indicate that teen pregnancy is a function of something other than ethnic origin.

In the area of teen births there is a bright spot. The birthrate among Black teenage girls has declined by 10% since 1970.

Education has been a traditional source for Black empowerment and progress. Between 1968 and 1976, Black undergraduate enrollment increased from 6% to 11% of the national total. Since 1976, the number of Black high school graduates enrolling in college went from 34% to 26%, representing a decline of 15,000 students; only 42% of those enrolling in college reached graduation. Regardless of this increase, Blacks are still under represented in higher education; over 20% of all whites have 4 years of college or more.

The vast majority of Black children are not being educated in an integrated environment. Over 75% of all Black students in public schools are concentrated within 2% of the nation's school districts. This represents 350 out of 16,000 school districts. In these schools, only 16% of the Black children, age 7, were adept at reading, compared with 45% of the white children at the same age level.

In a 1985 study, the National Assessment of Educational Progress reported that 85% of the Black 17 year old high school students lacked the language skills needed to handle college-level work. The drop-out rate for Black high school students remains high. Over 17% of Blacks 18 and 19 years old were high school dropouts.

VII. BLACKS AND THE FUTURE OF WORK

The "Great American Job Machine" extolled by the Republican Party has not dented long-term structural Black unemployment. Black unemployment in 1987 was about the same level as 1980.

Recently, the Joint Economic Committee released a response to the Economic Report of the President, 1987. In the report, the Committee contrasts current job creation with previous periods, especially 1976-1980. Between 1980-1985, the U.S. averaged only 1.3 million new jobs per year and between 1976-1980, the average was almost 2.8 million jobs per year.

According to the AFL-CIO's Committee on the Evolution of Work, "because of the 'baby bust' in the 1960's and 1970's, the number of young people aged 16 to 24 will drop from 26 million in 1980 to 24 million in 1990. Within this overall drop, however, the number of Black and Hispanic workers will increase. Blacks are expected to make up 20% of the additions to the labor force over the 1984-95 period. There will be about 3 million Blacks aged 16 to 24 and about 1.5 million Hispanics in this age group by 1990."

Furthermore, jobs that have been created are primarily low wage or part-time jobs with low wages and little room for advancement. According to the Department of Labor's publication Workforce 2000 Work and Workers in the 21st Century, the fastest growing jobs are going to be in high skill areas. These new jobs are expected to require a median of 13.5 years of schooling. Low skill jobs will shrink dramatically: precision production, construction, service occupations and hand workers are some examples of these shrinking, low skill jobs. Given the current low level of college and high completion among Blacks, the employment outlook might be an even worse by 1999.

The spectre of male structural unemployment is all too familiar to the Black community. Black males (from 20 years and over) were twice as likely to be unemployed as white males. Black youths (age 16-19) were also twice as likely to be unemployed as white males of the same age.

Some economists attribute long-term Black male structural unemployment to several factors: the de-industrialization of America; displacement due to structural changes in the economy; and automation producing changes in job skills. Racism remains a strong, perhaps the strongest, inhibitor of the progress of the Blacks in the United States. Racism has deprived Blacks of the kinds of well-paid blue collar jobs that have enabled others to move ahead. Now the workplace is changing. African- Americans, deprived of the chance to compete fairly in the old world, begin life in the new world with a deficit of job skills and the continuing battle of stereotypes.

Although their unemployment rate remains high, Black females are finding jobs in the emerging service sector of the economy. All too often, the jobs are neither high paying nor professional. In a recent study by the National Committee on Pay Equity entitled Pay Equity: An Issue of Race, Ethnicity and Sex, Dr. Bonnie Thornton Dill explains that the U.S. workforce is segregated by race, ethnicity and sex, with the majority of people of color still holding down the low-paying occupations.

In the 207 page study, Dill says "Almost 25 years after the passage of the Pay Equity Act of 1963 and the Civil Rights Act of 1964, women earn less than men; Black and Hispanic women earn least of all...if people of color were compensated for their education and experience in the same way as white men, average wages would rise for this group by as much as 37.8 percent." The study also claims that the higher the rate of women in an occupation, the more likely that occupation is at the bottom of the wage ladder.

In these occupations, many Blacks are either working at the minimum wage level or are classified as "low-wage earners." For example, out of a possible 7,216,000 Black hourly wage earners, over 741,000, or 12.5%, are working at or below the minimum wage.

Other Black hourly workers are considered "low-wage earners", making less than $204 a week. In the September 1986 Monthly Labor Review, Sheldon Danziger, Director of the Institute for Research on Poverty at the University of Wisconsin and Peter Gottschalk, Professor of Economics at Bowdoin College defined "low-wage earners" as heads of households (male or female) who are expected to work, but often do not make enough to stay out of poverty. Since 1979, the total number of low-wage earners has had sharply increased from 19.7% to 26.1%.

The authors of the study conclude that although the numerical majority of "low-wage earners" are White, Blacks are over represented. Regardless of race or national origin, the 17 million "low-wage earners" represent the labor movement's future membership.

The labor force by 1995 will include a net increase of 3 million more Black females and 2.4 million Blacks males. Table 19 outlines the changes in the labor force over the next decade.

Table 19

Black Civilian Labor Force, by Sex and Age, 1972-1982, and Middle Growth Projection to 1995

Labor Group	Labor Force (in millions)					Participation Rate				
	1972	1980	1982	1990	1995	1972	1980	1982	1990	1995
Black, 16 and over	8.70	10.80	11.30	13.60	14.80	59.9	61.0	61.0	64.5	65.4
Men	4.80	5.60	5.80	6.60	7.20	73.7	70.6	70.1	70.4	70.5
16-24	1.20	1.40	1.40	1.10	1.00	63.9	62.0	60.3	55.9	54.0
25-54	2.90	3.50	3.70	4.90	4.90	90.0	88.4	87.7	87.4	87.0
55 and over	0.68	0.64	0.66	0.59	5.8	49.1	39.3	39.0	33.2	31.3
Women	3.60	5.20	5.50	6.90	7.60	48.7	53.2	53.7	59.0	61.2
16-24	0.97	1.30	1.30	1.20	1.10	45.0	48.9	48.4	51.8	53.2
25-54	2.40	3.30	3.60	5.00	5.80	60.0	67.6	68.8	75.7	78.6
55 and over	0.5	0.58	0.59	0.63	0.66	27.8	26.1	25.3	23.6	22.9

Source: Department of Labor: Monthly Labor Review.

VIII. BLACKS AND UNIONS

In 1988, of the 11,176,000 employed Black wage and salary workers, 2,559,000 were union members and a total of 2,898,000 were represented by unions. The number of Blacks who were union members rose by 114,000 over the 1987 level. 22.9% of all Black workers were members of unions and 25.9% were represented by unions. By contrast only 16.0% of the white workforce were union members and only 18.1% were represented by unions. Table 20 describes union affiliation by race and sex in 1986.

Table 20

Employed Wage and Salary Workers by Age, Race and Union Affiliation, 1988.
(numbers in thousands)

Age, sex and race	Total employed	Members of Unions* Total	Members of Unions* % of employed	Represented by unions** Total	Represented by unions** % of employed
White, 16 years and over	87,176	13,932	16.0	15,759	18.1
Men	46,783	9,294	19.9	10,210	21.8
Women	40,393	4,638	11.5	5,549	13.7
Black, 16 and over	11,176	2,559	22.9	2,898	25.9
Men	5,502	1,438	26.1	1,531	29.1
Women	5,674	1,121	19.8	1,297	22.9

*Data refers to members of a labor union or an employee association similar to a union.

**Data refers to members of a labor union on an employee association similar to a union as well as workers who report no union affiliation but whose jobs are covered by a union or an employee association contract.

Source: Employment and Earnings, US Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, January, 1989

Throughout the 1950's and 1960's, white workers were more likely to be union members than Blacks. Given the higher rate of white participation in mass-production industries during this period, the racial disparity in union membership is understandable.

By the 1970's, Black and white membership rates had become almost equal, which was largely due to strong membership rates in the auto and steel industries as well as the government. With the growth of manufacturing throughout the post World War II era and before the oil recession, more Blacks entered mass-production industries and joined the labor movement. Furthermore, many Blacks entered the public sector at the time when unions were making a big impact there.

In recent years, Blacks have assumed growing importance to the labor movement, in part because the union representation rate for Black workers exceeds that for white workers in every major occupational and industrial group. Black workers enjoy higher rates of contract coverage than white workers in most industries. In the white-collar sector of the economy, where 90 percent of the new jobs have been created since 1977, 30 percent of Black workers are unionized.

Based on 1984 figures from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, manufacturing, transportation and public utilities had the highest concentration of Black union members. Over 1 million Black union members were located in these industries. Furthermore, 36.9% of all Black workers in manufacturing were organized; 49.3% of all Black transport and public utilities workers were organized.

In these industries, whites had larger numbers of union members, but their proportion was smaller. Only 25.9% of all white manufacturing workers were organized; 36.9% of all white transportation and public utilities workers were organized.

The next two sectors of the economy with the largest concentration of Black union members were government and services. Government had 886,000 Black union members. The service sector had over 301,000 Black union members. In government, the proportion for both Black and white unionization was the same, approximately 37%.

In the service sector, a greater proportion of Blacks are in unions than whites: <u>13.4% of all Black workers are union members while only 6.1% of all white workers are union members</u>. According to recent COPE surveys, Black trade unionists are more politically active than other union members, and overwhelmingly vote for candidates that are pro-labor. In 1986, service-sector workers who were members of unions averaged $50 more a week than nonunion workers.

Union membership can be one of Black America's most important paths to economic security and equality. Black trade-unionists make consistently higher wages than their nonunion counterparts. In 1988, both Black union members and those who are represented by unions made about $130 more a week than nonunion Blacks.

In 1988, Black male union members earned over $130 more per week than nonunion Black males. The type of industry - auto, steel, and other durable goods - can explain the higher pay for Black trade unionists. Black labor force participation remains high in these traditionally unionized sectors of the economy. Black female trade-unionists make $103 more a week than their nonunion sisters. Table 21 shows the median weekly earnings of full-time workers by sex, race and union affiliation in 1986.

Table 21

Median weekly earnings of full-time wage and salary workers by age, sex, race and union affiliation.

Sex and Race	Total	Members of unions*	Represented by unions**	Non-union***
Total, 16 years and over	$385	$480	$476	$356
Men	$449	$506	$505	$416
Women	$315	$403	$399	$300
White	$394	$488	$484	$368
Men	$465	$513	$512	$432
Women	$318	$410	$406	$305
Black	$314	$417	$413	$279
Men	$347	$458	$455	$298
Women	$288	$374	$369	$263

*Data refers to members of a labor union or an employee association similar to a union.

**Data refers to members of a labor union or an employee association similar to a union as well as workers who report no union affiliation but whose jobs are covered by a union or an employee contract.

***Date refers to workers who report no union membership or coverage.

Source: Employment and Earnings, January, 1989. p. 227.

Although higher pay and better benefits are important to all trade unionists, many Blacks see unionization as the next logical step in the struggle for civil rights. When denied social dignity, Blacks struggled for their full political and legal rights. When seen by employers as a source of cheap labor, Blacks are willing to fight for workplace dignity through unionization. One anti-union consultant has cautioned management about hiring Blacks given their bias for unions. In 1980, Chicago labor consultant, Woodruff Imberman stated:

> "Look at it from the perspective of the average Black. He sees that the only way that the Blacks have gotten any place in this country in the last 20 years is collective action...so, it is my strong finding that Blacks tend to be more prone to unionization than whites...You have to follow the EEOC (Equal Opportunity Commission). But there is no reason for you to be heroes about this and be interested in abstract justice or upraising the downtrodden. So don't fill up the workplace with Blacks. If you keep them at minimum wage you are better off."

As many Blacks enter the service sector, the labor movement will have to redouble their organizing efforts to reach this segment of the workforce. It will not be easy. Unions will have to overcome the service sector's traditional resistance to unions. Unions might be forced to develop new organizing strategies, forge different collective bargaining issues and rethink bargaining-unit structures. Union activists will face the entrenched hostility of employers who are used to a steady supply of low-wage, nonunion labor. It would be wise for union activists, however, to remember a 1967 quote by Dr. Martin Luther King in a speech entitled "Where Do We Go From Here: Chaos or Community?." King said:

> "In the days to come, organized labor will increase its importance in the destinies of Negroes. Automation is imperceptibly but inexorably producing dislocations, skimming off unskilled labor from the industrial force. The displaced are flowing into proliferating service occupations. These enterprises are traditionally unorganized and provide low wage scales with longer hours. The Negroes pressed into these services need protection, and the union movement needs their membership to maintain its relative strength in the whole society."

IX. POLITICS

As with other ethnic and racial groups, Blacks continue to organize politically, seeing the voting booth and election to public office as the key to social progress. The greatest Black political success came in the early 1970's. In 1970, Black officials numbered 1,469. By 1974, their numbers had more than doubled to 2,991. This increase represents an average of 15% per year. By 1988, Black officials numbered 6,829.

The largest concentration of Black elected officials remains in the South. In the South, 17 states including Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia and the District of Columbia, had over 3,801 Black elected officials. By 1986, their numbers increased by 239. Mississippi and Louisiana had the highest amount of Black elected officials, 521 and 488 respectively. The next largest concentration of Black elected officials is in the Midwest.

As of 1986, the House of Representatives had 24 Black Congressional members, most of whom represent predominately Black districts, or districts where the White/Black/Hispanic ratio is balanced. The number of Black Congressional members has doubled since 1970. There are no Black senators. To find out who the Black congressmen are, contact the Congressional Black Caucus in Washington, D.C., H2-344 House Office Building, Annex II, Washington, DC 20515, (202) 226-7790.

Black political power truly emerged nationally with Jesse Jackson's candidacies for President. Jackson galvanized hundreds of thousands of Blacks to vote in the primaries and take a more active role in the democratic process. In one estimate, the Atlanta based Voter Education Project counted over 1 million new Black voters registered in the South before the 1984 election. The Census Bureau also reports that 2.3 new Black voters registered between 1980-1984.

The largest increase in turnout occurred amongst young Blacks, both male and female between the ages 18-24. Black females 18-20 had the largest increase: 16%.

Table 22

The Most Important Issues Cited by Blacks in 1986
(Survey Contrasted with White Responses)

Issue	Blacks		Whites	
Unemployment	56%	*1	29%	**2
High Cost of Living	33%	2	28%	3
Drug Abuse	32%	3	36%	1
Crime	27%	4	22%	5
Government Programs	24%	5	9%	15
Civil Rights of Minority Groups	16%	6	2%	19
Protecting American Jobs	13%	7	21%	6
Teenage Pregnancy	13%	8	5%	17
Quality of Public Education	11%	9	18%	7
Health Care	10%	10	13%	10

*Ranking for Blacks

**Ranking for Whites

Source: 1986 Joint Center for Political Studies/Gallup Survey

X. CONCLUSION

Blacks have made enormous strides since the 1960's. They have a larger middle and upper class segment of the population. There are fewer Blacks living in segregated areas. There are more Black professionals. A higher percentage of Blacks are college graduates than twenty years ago. Clearly the gains in the last two decades should be a source of pride in the African American community.

But that assertion can be misleading. Using the truths of Black affluence, it is easy to proclaim that the struggle has ended. This is not true. Blacks continue to make gains, but only at a fraction of the pace of other groups. There still remain a large number of Black under class citizens. There continue to be disparities in earnings between Blacks and other ethnic groups in the US.

Blacks represent a vital force for the labor movement to tap. Blacks are strongly pro-union, and the labor movement brings them substantially higher wages than they would otherwise receive. More importantly, the labor movement is a mechanism through which Blacks can plug into a network of activists sympathetic to their needs. Blacks have come a long way. With the help of the AFL-CIO and its affiliate unions, Blacks can continue to progress.

APPENDIX A

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URBAN INSTITUTE (UI)
2100 M Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20037
William Gorham, President
Ph. # (202) 833-7200

CENTER FOR NATIONAL POLICY REVIEW (CNPR)
1025 Vermont Ave., N.W.
Suite 360
Washington, D.C. 20005
William L. Taylor, Director
Ph. # (202) 783-5640

CENTER ON BUDGET AND PRIORITIES
236 Massachusetts Ave., N.E.
Suite 305
Washington, D.C. 20002
Robert Greenstein, Director
Ph. # (202) 544-0591

CENTER FOR COMMUNITY CHANGE
1000 Wisconsin Ave., N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20007
Pablo Eisenberg, President
Ph. # (202) 342-0519

CENTER FOR THE STUDY OF SOCIAL POLICY
236 Massachusetts Ave., N.E.
Washington, D.C. 20002
Tom Joe, Director
Ph. # (202) 546-5062

CENTER FOR THIRD WORLD ORGANIZING
3861 Martin Luther King, Jr. Way
Oakland, CA 94609
Gary Delgado
Ph. # (415) 654-9601

BLACK RESOURCES INFORMATION COORDINATING SERVICES
614 Howard Avenue
Tallahassee, Florida 32304
Ph. # (904) 576-7522

APPENDIX B

Selected Resources

THE NEGRO ALMANAC: A Reference Work on the Afro-American, compiled and edited by Harry A. Ploski and James Williams. New York: Wiley, 1983. 4th ed.

FACTS ABOUT BLACKS, Jeffries and Associates, Inc.
3540 Wilshire Blvd. Los Angeles, CA 90010 Ph. # (213) 388-9638, 1980. price $2.50

BLACK RESOURCE GUIDE
Published by Ben Johnson
Washington. D.C. 1983

STATE OF BLACK AMERICA
National Urban League (1986)

THE DECLINING SIGNIFICANCE OF RACE: Blacks and Changing American Institutions, William Julius Wilson, University of Chicago, 1980 2nd edition.

THE JOURNAL OF INTERGROUP RELATIONS, SPECIAL REPORT: Race and Labor, National Association of Human Rights Workers, Herbert Hill, vol. X Spring 1983

THE BLACK WORKER: A DOCUMENTARY HISTORY FROM COLONIAL TIMES THE PRESENT Edited by Philip S. Foner and Ronald L. Lewis.
Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1978-1983.

A PHILIP RANDOLPH: A BIOGRAPHICAL PORTRAIT
Jervis Anderson. Berkeley: University of California
Press (1986)

APPENDIX C

Films

PORTRAIT IN BLACK - A. PHILIP RANDOLPH
Produced by Rediscover Productions
10 Minutes 1970. Rental $5.

THE COLOR OF JUSTICE
Produced by Rediscovery Productions
26 Minutes 1970. Rental $5.

BLACK MEN AND IRON HORSES
Produced by the New York Times/Arno Press
18 Minutes 1970. Rental $5.

BLACK - WHITE: UPTIGHT
Produced by Bailey Film Associates
35 Minutes. 1970. Rental $10.

APPENDIX D

Church Denominations and Organizations

AFRICAN METHODIST
EPISCOPAL CHURCH
P.O. Box 183
St. Louis, MO 63166
(314) 534-6020
Sec. Richard A. Chappelle

AFRICAN METHODIST EPISCOPAL
ZION CHURCH
1200 Windemere Drive
Philadelphia, PA 15218
(412) 242-5842
Sec. Bishop Charles Fogge

AMERICAN BAPTIST ASSOCIATION
4605 N. State Line Ave.
Texarkana, TX 75503
Director, James B. Powers
(214) 792-2783

BIBLE WAY TEMPLE
1100 New Jersey Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20001
Bishop Smallwood E. Williams

CHRISTIAN METHODIST EPISCOPAL
CHURCH
P.O. Box 3403
Memphis, TN 38103
Rev. Edgar L. Wade

CHURCH OF GOD IN CHRIST
272 S. Main St.
Memphis, TN 38101
(901) 521-1163
Sec Bishop G. R. Ross

COALITION OF BLACK LUTHERANS
422 S. Fifth St.
Minneapolis, MN 55415
(612) 330-3100
Vivian Nelson

GOSPEL MUSIC WORK OF AMERICA
P.O. Box 4632
Detroit, MI 48234
(313) 341-2521
Exec. Sec., Edward B Smith

NATIONAL BAPTIST CONVENTION
OF AMERICA
2016 Russell Rd.
Shreveport, LA 71107

NATIONAL BAPTIST CONVENTION,
USA, INC.
5738 Stratford Ave.
Baton Rouge, LA
(914) 664-2276

NATIONAL BLACK CATHOLIC
CLERGY CAUCUS
1419 V St., NW
Washington, DC 20009
Exec. Dir., Cyprian Rowe, FMS
(202) 328-0718

NATIONAL BLACK CATHOLIC
LAY CAUCUS
1234 Mass. Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20005
President, Robert Robinson
(202) 638-0625

NATIONAL OFFICE OF BLACK
CATHOLICS
1234 Mass. Ave., NW
Suite 1004
Washington, DC 20005
Exec. Dir., James R. Henderson
(202) 347-4619

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF BLACK
CHURCHMEN
105 Madison Ave.
Suite 1102
New York, NY 10016
President, Charles Cobb
(212) 683-5656

HEBREW ISRAELITES
2766 Northwest 62nd St.
Miami, FL 33022
(800) 327-5995

NATIONAL COALITION OF BLACK CHURCH MUSICIANS
1118 9th St., NW
Washington, DC 20001
President, Albert Knight
(202) 289-5383

PROGRESSIVE NATIONAL BAPTIST CONVENTION, INC.
601 50th St., NE
Washington, DC 20019
Gen. Sec. Rev C. J. Malloy
(202) 396-0558

UNION OF BLACK EPISCOPALIANS
26 Leyland St.
Dorchester, MA 02125
President, Edrick Bain
(617) 442-5495

NATIONAL OFFICE OF BLACK UNITED METHODISTS
P.O. Box 92220
Atlanta, GA 30314
President, Preston C. Jones, Sr
(404) 758-8118

NATIONAL UNITED CHURCH USHERS ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA, INC.
429 S. Cobbs Creek Parkway
Philadelphia, PA 19143
Chairman, Lewis Martin
(303) 388-5183

THE NATION OF ISLAM
9415 S. Damen Ave.
Chicago, IL 60620
Natl Spokesperson: L. Farrakhan
(312) 881-8172

THE PAN AFRICAN ORTHODOX CHRISTIAN CHURCH
13535 Livernois Ave.
Detroit, MI 48238
President, Rev. Albert Cleage
(313) 491-0777

APPENDIX E

Newspaper Associations

AMALGAMATED PUBLISHERS, INC.
45 West 45th St.
New York, NY 10036
President, John Sengstacke
(212) 489-1220

BMI COOPERATIVE
410 Central Park West
New York, NY 10025
Chairman, Calvin Rolark
(212) 222-3555

NATIONAL NEWSPAPER PUBLISHERS ASSOCIATION
770 National Press Bldg.
Washington, DC 20045
Executive Director, Steve Davis
(202) 638-4473

A. Newspapers

Alabama

BIRMINGHAM TIMES
P.O. Box 10503
Birmingham, AL 35204
Editor, John Street

BIRMINGHAM WORLD
312 N. 17th St.
Birmingham, AL 35203
Marcel Hopson

INNER CITY NEWS
P.O. Box 1545
Mobile, AL 36633
(205) 473-2767

TUSCALOOSA COURIER
P.O. Box 2055
Tuscaloosa, AL 35401
Publisher, Charles Steele

Arizona

PHOENIX INFORMANT
222 N. 9th St.
Phoenix, AZ 85034
Editor, Debbie Ellison

Arkansas

LITTLE ROCK STATEWIDE MEDIATOR
500 E. Markham, Suite 300
Little Rock, AR 72201
Publisher, Charles Dolphus

California

CALIFORNIA ADVOCATE
P.O. Box 11826
Fresno, CA 93775
Editor, Pauline Kimber

CENTRAL NEWS WAVE
1016 W. Vernon Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90043
Editor, Chester Washington

California (continued)

HERALD DISPATCH GROUP
P.O. Box 19027A
Los Angeles, CA 90019
Publisher, John H. Holoman
(213)291-9486

METRO REPORTER
1366 Turk St.
San Francisco, CA 94115
Editor, Donald R. Young

METRO STAR
42353 47th St., West
Quartz Hill, CA 93534
Publisher, Leon Hudson

METROPOLITAN GAZETTE
83 E. Orange Grove Blvd.
Pasadena, CA 91103
Editor, Mildred L. Hamm

PRECINCT REPORTER
1673 W. Baseline
San Bernardino, CA 92411
Editor, Stanley Osborne

THE OBSERVER
3540 4th Avenue
Sacramento, CA 95801
Editor, William H. Lee

THE POST
630 20th St.
Oakland, CA 94612
Editor, Tom Berkly

THE SENTINEL
1112 E. 43rd St.
Los Angeles, CA 90011
Editor, Ruth Washington

VOICE & VIEWPOINT NEWS
4684 Federal Blvd.
San Diego, CA 92112
Editor, Earl Davis, Jr.

WATTS TIMES
3870 S Crenshaw, Suite 208
Los Angeles, CA 90008
Publisher, Charles Cook
(213) 291-5909

Connecticut

INQUIRER
P.O. Box 1260
Hartford, CT 06101
Editor, W.R. Hales
(203) 522-1462

Delaware

DEFENDER
P.O. box 1765
Wilmington, DE 19899
Editor, A.G. Hibbert

District of Columbia

AFRO-AMERICAN
2002 11th St., NW
Washington, DC 20001
Editor, Ruth Jenkins

CAPITOL SPOTLIGHT
National Press Bldg.
Suite 1019-1021
Washington, DC 20045
Editor, R.E. Kendrick

District of Columbia (continued)

INFORMER
3117 Martin Luther
King, Jr. Ave., SE
Washington, DC 20032
Editor, Dr. Calvin W. Rolark
(202) 232-3060
(202) 561-4100

NEW OBSERVER
811 Florida Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20001
Editor, Michael A. Graham

THIRD WORLD NEWS
P.O. Box 53395
Washington, DC 20009
Publisher, H.S. Hamod
(202) 347-4145

WASHINGTON LIVING MAGAZINE
P.O. Box 50537
Washington, DC 20004
Publisher, Edward Anthony
(301) 953-1192

Florida

CHRONICLE
1527 Avenue D
Ft. Pierce, FL 33450
C.E. Bolen

FLORIDA STAR TIMES
P.O. Box 40629
Jacksonville, FL 32203
Editor, Eric O. Simpson

GAZETTE
P.O. Box 5304
Ft. Lauderdale, FL 33310
Editor, Levi Henry
(305) 523-5115

MIAMI TIMES
6530 NW 15th Avenue
Miami, FL 33147
Editor, Garth C. Reeves

NEWS REPORTER
1610 North Howard Ave.
Tampa, FL 33607
Editor, James Jackson

PENSACOLA VOICE
213 E. Young Street
Pensacola, FL 32503
Editor, Les Humphrey

SENTINEL BULLETIN
2207 21st Avenue
Tampa, FL 33605
Editor, C. Blythe Andrews

THE BULLETIN
P.O. Box 2560
Sarasota, FL 33578
Editor, William F. Jackson
(813) 366-5821

WEEKLY CHALLENGER
2500 9th St., South
St. Petersburg, FL 33705
Publisher, Cleveland Johnson

Georgia

ALBANY/MACON TIMES
315 Highland Avenue
Albany, GA 31705
Editor, W.L. Russell

ATLANTA DAILY WORLD
145 Auburn Avenue, NE
Atlanta, GA 30335-1201
Publisher, C.A. Scott
(404) 659-1110

ATLANTA INQUIRER
787 Parsons St., SW
Atlanta, GA 30314
D.L. Stanley

ATLANTA PEOPLE'S CRUSADER
551 Houston St., NE
Atlanta, GA 30312
Publisher, Hosea Williams

ATLANTA VOICE
P.O. Box 92405
Atlanta, GA 30315
Editor, J. Lowell Ware

MACON COURIER
P.O. Box 52201
610 New Street
Macon, GA 31208
Editor, Harris Walker, Jr.

SOUTHEASTERN NEWS
P.O. Box 461
Cordele, GA 31015
Eugene Rutland
(912) 745-7433

THE COLUMBUS TIMES
2230 Buena Vista Rd.
Columbus, GA 31906
Editor, Ophelia Mitchell
(404) 324-2405

TRIBUNE
P.O. Box 2066
Savannah, GA 31402
Editor, Angela Crawford

Illinois

CHICAGO DAILY DEFENDER
2400 S. Michigan Ave.
Chicago, IL 60616
Publisher, John Sengstacke
(312) 225-2400

CHICAGO METRO NEWS
2600 S. Michigan Ave.
Suite 308
Chicago, IL 60616
Pub., Charles B. Armstrong
(312) 842-5950

EAST ST. LOUIS CRUSADER
2206 Missouri Ave.
East St. Louis, IL 62205
Publisher, Joe Lewis, St.
(618) 271-0565

MONITOR
1501 State Street
East St. Louis, IL 62205
Publisher, Clyde C. Jordan
(618) 271-0468

THE CHICAGO CRUSADER
6429 South King Drive
Chicago, IL 60637
Editor, Dorothy R. Leavell
(312) 752-2500

OBSERVER
6040 S. Harper
Chicago, IL 60637
Publisher, Ibn Sharrieff

Illinois (continued)

THE CHICAGO SHORE AND NEWS
11740 S. Elizabeth Street
Chicago, IL 60643
Publisher, Al Johnson
(312) 568-7091

TRI-CITY JOURNAL
4545 S. Drexel Blvd.
Chicago, IL 60653
Publisher, Ibn Sharrieff

THE NORTH SHORE EXAMINER
909 Pitner Avenue
Evanston, IL 60202
Editor, Randolph Tomlinson
(312) 328-3238

Indiana

GARY AMERICAN
2254-56 Broadway
Gary, IN 46402
Editor, Fred Harris

GARY INFO
P.O. Box M 587
Gary, IN 46401
Editor, Imogene Harris
(219) 882-5591

INDIANAPOLIS RECORDER
2901 North Tacoma Avenue
Indianapolis, IN 46218
Editor, Marcus Stewart

GARY CRUSADER
1549 Broadway
Gary, IN 46407
Pub., Dorothy R. Leavell
(219) 885-4257

INDIANA HERALD
723 Northwest St.
Indianapolis, IN 46202
Editor, O.L. Tandy

Iowa

WEST DES MOINES NEW IOWA
BYSTANDER
P.O. Box 65640
West Des Moines, IA 50265
Publisher, Charles McCuley
(515) 277-8736

Kansas

KANSAS CITY GLOBE
1125 Grand, Suite 1102
Kansas City, KS 64106
Marion Jordan
(816) 842-3301

KANSAS CITY VOICE
2727 North 13th St.
Kansas City, KS 66104
Publisher, Gladys Adams

KANSAS WEEKLY JOURNAL
P.O. Box 8175
Wichita, KS 67208
Editor, Jack Hudson
(316) 264-1327

Kentucky

KUSASA JOURNAL
Cooperstown Bldg.
Lexington, KY 40508
Editor, Corbin Seavers
(606) 259-3377

LOUISVILLE DEFENDER
1720 Dixie Highway
Louisville, KY 40210
Publisher, Kenneth Stanley
(502) 772-2591

Louisiana

BLACK DATA WEEKLY
P.O. Box 51933
New Orleans, LA 70151
Publisher, Theodore La Croix

COMMUNITY LEADER
1210 North Blvd.
Baton Rouge, LA 70802
Alfonso Lankster

LOUISIANA WEEKLY
640 South Rampart Street
New Orleans, LA 70150
Editor, C.C. Dejoie

THE SHREVEPORT SUN
P.O. Box 9328
Shreveport, LA 71109
Editor, Sonya C. Landry
(318) 631-6222

Maryland

AFRO-AMERICAN
628 N. Eutaw St.
Baltimore, MD 21201
Editor, Ralph Matthews

Michigan

CITIZEN
P.O. Box 216
Benton Harbor, MI 49022
Charles Kelly

DETROIT CHRONICLE
479 Ledyard St.
Detroit, MI 48201
Editor, L.M. Quinn

Michigan (continued)

DETROIT ECROSE TELEGRAM
4122 10th St.
Detroit, MI 48229
Editor, W.C. Wall

GRAND RAPIDS TIMES
346 Wealthy St., SE
Grand Rapids, MI 49501
Editor, John Bankston

JACKSON BLAZER
1305 Francis
Jackson, MI 49203
Publisher, Ben Wade
(517) 787-0450

Minnesota

MINNESOTA SPOKESMAN/RECORD
3744 4th Avenue South
Minneapolis, MN 55409
Editor, Oscar Newman

ST. PAUL RECORDER
3744 4th Avenue South
Minneapolis, MN 55409
Editor, Cecil Newman

TWIN CITIES COURIER
84 South 6th St., Suite 501
Minneapolis, MN 55402
Editor, Mary J. Kyle

Mississippi

THE JACKSON ADVOCATE
115 East Hamilton
Jackson, MS 39202
Editor, Charles Tisdale
(601) 948-4122

MERIDIAN MEMO DIGEST
2511 Fifth St.
Meridian, MS 39301
Publisher, Robert Williams
(601) 693-2372

Missouri

CALL
1715 East 18th St. P.O.
Kansas City, MO 64141
Editor, Lucile Buford

EVENING WHIRL
Box 5088 Nagel Station
St. Louis, MO 63113
Editor, Benjamin Thomas
(314) 383-3875

ST. LOUIS AMERICAN
3910 Lindell Blvd.
St. Louis, MO 63108
Editor, Bennie G. Rodgers

ST. LOUIS ARGUS
4595 Martin Luther King Dr.
St. Louis, MO 63113
Editor, Scott Anderson

Missouri (continued)

ST. LOUIS SENTINEL
3338 Olive St.
St. Louis, MO 63103
Publisher, Jane Woods
(314) 531-2101

Nebraska

OMAHA STAR
2116 North 24th St.
Omaha, NE 68111
Editor, Mildred Brown

New Jersey

AFRO-AMERICAN
439 Central Avenue
East Orange, NJ 07108
Editor, Robert Queen
(201) 672-9102

New York

BIG RED NEWS
40 Empire Blvd.
Brooklyn, NY 11225
Editor, Walter Smith, Jr.
(212) 693-9802

BLACK AMERICAN
41 Union Square
New York, NY 10003

BROOKLYN NEW YORK RECORDER
86 Bainbridge
Brooklyn, NY 11207
Publisher, Thomas Watkins
(212) 493-4616

BUFFALO CHALLENGER
1303 Fillmore Avenue
Buffalo, NY 14211
Editor, Barbara Banks
(716) 897-0442

BUFFALO CRITERION
625 Williams St.
Buffalo, NY 14206
Publisher, Frank Merriweather
(716) 853-2973

BUFFALO FINE PRINT NEWS
Box 57
Buffalo, NY 14205
Editor, Ronald H. Fleming

CHOCOLATE SINGLES
P.O. Box 333
New York, NY 11413
Publisher, Barbara Miles
(212) 624-6247

NEW YORK DAILY CHALLANGE
1368 Fulton St.
Brooklyn, NY 11207
Publisher, Thomas Watkins

NEW YORK VOICE
79-36 Parsons Blvd.
New York, NY 11366
Editor, James Hicks

WESTCHESTER COUNTY PRESS
61 Pinecrest Drive
Hastings on Hudson, NY 10706
Publisher, Alger Adams
(914) 478-0006

New York (continued)

WESTCHESTER OBSERVER
542 East Third St.
Mount Vernon, NY 10553
Editor, Ben Anderson

North Carolina

CAROLINA TIMES
923 Old Fayetteville St.
Durham, NC 27701
Editor, Lodius Austin

CHRONICLE
516 N. Trade St.
Winston-Salem, NC 27102
Editor, Ernest H. Pitt
(919) 722-8924

HIGH POINT HERALD
144 N. Main St.
High Point, NC 27260
Editor, Stan Davis
(919) 885-6728

PEACEMAKER
P.O. Box 20853
Greensboro, NC 27420
Publisher, J.M. Kilimanjaro

STAR OF ZION
401 East 2nd St.
Charlotte, NC 28201
Editor, Morgan W. tann
(704) 327-4329

THE CAROLINIAN
518 East Martin St.
Raleigh, NC 27601
Editor, Charles R. Jones

WILMINGTON JOURNAL
P.O. Box 1618
Wilmington, NC 28402
Editor, Thomas Jervey
(919) 762-5502

Ohio

AKRON REPORTER
P.O. Box 2042
Akron, OH 44809
Editor, William Ellis

CALL & POST
1949 East 105th St.
Cleveland, OH 44101
Editor, John H. Bustamante
(216) 791-7600

CINCINNATI POST
863 Lincoln Avenue
Cincinnati, OH 45206
Publisher, Marjorie B. Parham
(513) 221-5440

SOUTH EAST TIMES
3249 East 137th St.
Cleveland, OH 44120
Editor, Jim Baker

Ohio (continued)

THE BUCKEYE REVIEW
632 Belmont Avenue
Youngstown, OH 44502
Publisher, Sterling Williams
(216) 743-2250

THE TOLEDO JOURNAL
1816 W. Bancroft
Toledo, OH 43607
Publisher, Myron Stewart
(419) 472-4521

Oklahoma

OKLAHOMA EAGLE
122 North Greenwood Ave.
Tulka, OK 74120
Editor, Charles Jeffrey

Oregon

OBSERVER
P.O. Box 3137
Portland, OR 97208
Editor, A. Lee Henderson
(503) 283-2487

SKANNER
P.O. Box 5455
Portland, OR 97228
Editor, B.V. Foster

Pennsylvania

THE PHILADELPHIA NEW OBSERVER
511 N. Broad St.
Suite 600
Philadelphia, PA 19150
Editor, J.H. Warren III
(215) 922-5220

NEW PITTSBURGH COURIER
315 East Carson St.
Pittsburgh, PA 15230
Editor, James D. Lewis

PITTSBURGH H.B. NEWS
5929 Board St. Mall
Pittsburgh, PA 15206
Business Manager, J.M. Hawthorne
(412) 361-4100

THE NATIONAL LEADER
(National Newspaper)
1422 Chestnut St.
Suite 800
Philadelphia, PA 19102
Editor, Claude A. Lewis
1-800-523-1662

THE PHILADELPHIA TRIBUNE
520-26 South 16th St.
Philadelphia, PA 19146
Editor, James Casell
(215) 546-1005

Rhode Island

EBENEZER GRAPEVINE
475 Cranston St.
Providence, RI 02907
Editor, Douglas Terry
(401) 421-0817

South Carolina

THE CHRONICLE
534 King St.
P.O. Box 2548
Charleston, SC 29403
Editor, John French
(803) 723-2785

THE KEY
P.O. Box 491
Florence, SC 29503
Publisher, D.A. Lane

Tennessee

MID-SOUTH EXPRESS
1425 Elvis Presley Blvd.
Memphis, TN 78767
Publisher, M.L.A. Williams

TRI-STATE DEFENDER
124 East Calhoun Ave.
Memphis, TN 38101
Publisher, John Sengstacke
(901) 523-1818

Texas

ARGUS NEWSPAPER
1740 E. 12th St.
Box 2171
Austin, TX 78767
Editor, Arthur Sims
(512) 476-0211

DALLAS WEEKLY
P.O. Box 15832
Dallas, TX 75212
Editor, Tony Davis

FORWARD TIMES
4411 Alameda Rd.
Houston, TX 77004
Publisher, Lenora Carter

HOUSTON DEFENDER NEWSPAPER
P.O. Box 8005
2616 South Loop W.
Suite 630
Houston, TX 77054
Manager, Sonceria Messiah
(713) 660-6164

HOUSTON INFORMER
P.O. Box 3086
Houston, TX 77001
Publisher, George M. Elroy
(713) 527-8261

KEY NEWS
2241 Cedar Great
Dallas, TX 75203
Editor, Al Smith

Texas (continued)

METRO CITIES NEWS
3204 East Rosedale Avenue
Fort Worth, TX 76105
Editor, Dan Watkins

POST TRIBUNE
2726 South Beckley Ave.
Dallas, TX 75224
Editor, Dickie Foster

SAN ANTONIO REGISTER
1501 East Commerce St.
San Antonio, TX 78296
Editor, U.J. Andrews

TIMES
P.O. Box 1341
Fort Worth, TX 76101
Publisher, Woodie Webber

VILLAGER NEWSPAPER
New York, Y
1115 1/2 San Bernard
Austin, TX 78702

Virginia

AFRO-AMERICAN
301 East Clay St.
Richmond, VA 23219
Editor, Raymond Boone

JOURNAL & GUIDE
P.O. Box 209
Norfolk, VA 23501
Editor, Milton A. Reid

Virginia (continued)

ROANOKE TRIBUNE
P.O. Box 6021
Roanoke, VA 24017
Publisher, Claudia Whitworth
(703) 343-0326

Washington

FACTS News
2803 Cherry St.
Seattle, WA 98122
Editor, Fitzgerald Beaver

MEDIUM
P.O. Box 22047
Seattle, WA 98122
Editor, Chris Bennett

Wisconsin

COLORLINES MAGAZINE
929 N. 6th St.
Milwaukee, WI 53203
Editor, Debra Kenner
(414) 224-2942

COMMUNITY JOURNAL
3612 North Greenbay Ave.
Milwaukee, WI 53212
Editor, Michael Holt

Wisconsin (continued)

MILWAUKEE COURIER
2431 West Hopkins St.
Milwaukee, WI 53206
Editor, Carole Geary
(414) 445-2031

MILWAUKEE STAR
2431 West Hopkins St.
Milwaukee, WI 53206
Editor, Scott Anderson

RACINE COURIER
2431 West Hopkins St.
Milwaukee, WI 53206

APPENDIX F

Television Stations

<u>California</u>

KSTS-TV
2349 Bering Drive
San Jose, CA 95131
Chairman, John Douglas
(408) 946-3400

<u>District of Columbia</u>

Channel 50 TV
6507 Chillum Place, NW
Washington, DC 20012
President, Ted Ledbetter
(202) 723-1040

WHMM-TV
2600 4th St., NW
Washington, DC 20059
General Manager, Arnold Wallace
(202) 636-5600

<u>Maine</u>

WVII-TV
41 Farm Road
Bangor, ME 04401
Chairman, Jasper Williams
(207) 945-6457

<u>Michigan</u>

WGPR-TV 62
3146 East Jefferson St.
Detroit, MI 48207
Gen. Mgr., Dr. William V. Banks
(313) 259-8862

<u>Mississippi</u>

WBLT-TV
P.O. Box 1712
Jackson, MS 39205
Gen. Manager, William H. Dilday
(601) 948-3333

<u>New Jersey</u>

WRBV-TV
145 Tyler Drive
Willingboro, NJ 08046
President, Donald McMeans
(609) 817-2316

<u>New York</u>

WHEC-TV
191 East Avenue
Rochester, NY 14604
General Manager, Steve Kronquest
(716)546-5670

Texas

KLBX-TV
P.O. Box 1559
Lubbock, TX 79408
Gen. Manager, Bill Detournillon
(806) 745-2345

KTXS-TV
P.O. Box 2997
Abeline, TX 79604
General Manager, Sam Spivey
(915) 677-2281

Wisconsin

WAEO-TV
Box 858 South Oneida Ave.
Rhinelander, WI 54501
Carl Hilstrom
(715) 369-4700

FOCUS ON:

HISPANIC WORKERS

I. INTRODUCTION

Through strength of numbers and depth of culture Hispanic Americans are becoming a potent force in the development of our nation. The 1980 census counted 14.6 million persons of Spanish Origin, but the actual number of Hispanics in the U.S. may be closer to 22 million. By 1990 the United States will be the third largest Spanish speaking country in the world.

By many measures of economic well being, however, Hispanic Americans are far from achieving their full share of the American dream. Consider these facts:

* More than one out of every four Hispanic Americans lives in poverty, and the situation is getting worse.

* Unemployment among Hispanic Americans is generally 40 to 50 percent higher than it is among Americans overall. For every unemployed white non-Hispanic, there are almost two unemployed Hispanics, and that situation has not changed significantly for more than a decade.

* The median salary for an Hispanic American working a full-time job is $99 less each week than it is for a white non-Hispanic American.

For many Hispanic Americans, the statistics paint a dismal picture. But there is a ray of hope that Hispanic Americans can work toward a promising future. In 1988 the median wage of a non-union Hispanic worker was only $270 per week. But for an Hispanic worker who was a member of a union, the median wage was $400 per week--a difference of $130 per week. Furthermore, Hispanic union members earn better wages than White, non-Hispanic workers who are not members of unions, and Hispanic union members also earn better wages than American workers overall.

For the labor movement, the challenge to organize Hispanic Americans is crucial, for the interests of Hispanic Americans are the interests of all working men and women. In 1988 there were 7,215,000 workers of Hispanic origin in the United States. Of those workers, 1,220,000 were union members and 1,353,000 were represented by unions. That means 16 percent of Hispanic workers were union members and 17.7 percent were represented by unions. By contrast, 16 percent of white, non-Hispanic workers were union members and 18.1 percent were represented by unions. Thus, even though Hispanic workers are concentrated in the Southwest, in

largely unorganized industries, and in industries where employers are openly hostile to unions, they are more likely than workers overall to join unions.

This profile is an effort to describe the condition of Hispanic Americans today. It is written for those who already recognize the importance of Hispanic Americans to the labor movement, and also to see the impact Hispanic Americans will have on the future of American labor.

The Food and Allied Service Trades Department, AFL-CIO (F.A.S.T.) takes pride in the many Hispanic union members of our affiliates. We recognize the need for greater education, emphasis and understanding in order to help all Hispanics achieve their fair share, as well as their potential.

II. WHO ARE THE HISPANICS?

The word "Hispanic" does not define an ethnic group, a nationality or a race. It is a term that includes people of white, black, Indian and mixed ancestry. The word "Hispanic" includes the descendants of people who lived in what is now the Southwestern part of the United States when that land belonged to Mexico, along with the descendants of immigrants and new immigrants from over thirty Spanish speaking countries. It includes people whose ancestors entered different parts of the United States for different reasons and at different times in our country's history. Many Hispanics only use the word "Hispanic" to distinguish themselves from "Anglos" (a term used to describe all non-Hispanic whites, whether of German, Italian or any other ancestry).

The U.S. Census Bureau divides the Hispanic community into four categories: Mexican American, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and "Other Hispanic." These groups are separated not only by ancestry and national origin, but also by culture and, within the U.S., by geography.

Mexican Americans are the largest group of Hispanics in the U.S. Sixty percent of all Hispanic Americans are of Mexican heritage. They live primarily in the Southwest, concentrated in a crescent from Texas to California, and many can trace their ancestry back to the original Indian and Spanish inhabitants of what was once Mexican land. **There are more people of Mexican descent in Metropolitan Los Angeles alone than in any other place except Mexico City**. In that area of the U.S., places with Spanish names, architecture and cuisine are commonplace. Mexican Americans are often referred to, and many refer to themselves, as "chicanos". The term "chicano" became popular among younger Mexican Americans during the 1960's, but many in the older generation do not like to use it.

Puerto Ricans, whose ancestry is a mixture of Spanish, Black and Indian, live mainly in the Northeast and the northern-central part of the U.S., concentrated mostly in New York and New Jersey. Fourteen percent of all Hispanic Americans are Puerto Rican. Puerto Ricans are U.S. citizens at birth.

Cubans are the smallest group of Hispanic Americans in the U.S., representing six percent of all Hispanics. Cuban Americans live primarily in Florida, and most came to the U.S. after the Cuban Revolution of 1959. The entrepreneurial skill of Cuban Americans has changed Miami from a tourist resort to a center of international commerce.

The category of "Other Hispanic" includes people from Spain and all the countries in Latin America where Spanish is spoken. They come mostly from Central and South America, fleeing from a range of hardships from political repression to poverty. Immigrants from Latin American countries where Spanish is not spoken (for example, Brazil and Haiti) are not included among Hispanics.

There are strong forces which unite Hispanic Americans. The Hispanic culture is filled with "old fashioned" virtues such as devotion to God, family and work. According to a survey conducted in 1984 by Yankelovich, Skelly and White, the majority of Hispanics defined the ideal man as "a good provider to his wife and family."

However, there is also a great deal which separates Hispanic Americans, making it fairly meaningless to speak as though Hispanics were all the same. According to the Yankelovich survey, half of all Hispanics believe there are important differences between themselves and other Hispanics. The degree to which Hispanics perceive important differences between themselves is an indication of the strength and depth of the cultures they and their ancestors brought with them when they immigrated to this country.

According to the Yankelovich survey, half of the Hispanics who answered the survey see themselves as "Hispanic first, American second". Another thirty-six percent see themselves as "equally Hispanic and American". Many Hispanic Americans feel torn between the need to assimilate into the American mainstream and the desire to preserve their roots and Hispanic cultures.

In places with large concentrations of Hispanic residents, it is possible to live and work without ever having to speak English. A person can watch television in Spanish, read the newspaper in Spanish, go to Hispanic restaurants and movie theaters, and even get a driver's license in Spanish.

As the number of Hispanics in the U.S. increases and Hispanics become not only more visible but also more assertive of their rights, hostility and racism toward them may also increase. Some non-Hispanic Americans fear that American culture might change with the growth of a culturally and ethnically distinct Hispanic minority. Some even worry the U.S. could be split between Spanish speaking and English speaking areas. Discrimination is nothing new to Hispanic Americans. Before the civil rights movement of the 1960's, Hispanic Americans were subject to the same kind of racism aimed at Black Americans. The criticisms and fears of Hispanic immigration are not much different from those expressed by many Americans at the turn of this century when immigration from Southern and Eastern Europe outpaced immigration from Western and Northern Europe.

III. POPULATION

The 1980 census counted 14.6 million persons of Spanish Origin. Hispanics were thus 6.4 percent of the total U.S. population of 226.5 million people, making them the second largest minority in the U.S., behind Blacks. The census figures, however, do not include millions of Hispanics who live and work in the U.S. illegally. Including this population, the true number of Hispanics in the U.S. may be closer to 22 million.

Hispanic Americans live in every state of the Union, but **over sixty percent of all Hispanics live in just three states**: California (with 4.5 million Hispanic residents), Texas (almost three million), and New York (1.7 million). South Florida has almost a million Hispanic residents, 78 percent of whom are Cuban. Five other states each have over a quarter of a million Hispanic residents: Arizona, Colorado, Illinois, New Jersey, and New Mexico. These **nine states have 85 percent of all Hispanics living in the U.S.**

The geographic concentration of Hispanic sub-groups is even more pronounced than the concentration of Hispanics overall. For example, Texas and California account for more than 70 percent of all Mexican Americans, and New York and New Jersey account for 61 percent of all Puerto Ricans living in the U.S. According to the 1980 census, almost 60 percent of all Cuban Americans lived in Florida, and that figure does not even include the estimated 120,000 additional Cubans who arrived later with the Mariel boatlift and settled in Florida.

Table 23 below divides the U.S. Hispanic population by type, according to the classifications used by the Census Bureau. Mexican Americans are by far the largest segment of the Hispanic population, with almost sixty percent of the total. What the Census Bureau calls "Other Hispanic" includes people from Spain and the rest of Spanish speaking Latin America.

Table 23

U.S. Hispanic Population, by type
1980

Type	Number (in thousands)	Percent of TOTAL	States with largest concentrations
TOTAL Hispanic	14,609	100.0	California, Texas, New York
Mexican American	8,740	59.8	California, Texas, Illinois
Puerto Rican	2,014	13.8	New York, New Jersey, Illinois
Cuban	803	5.5	Florida, New Jersey, New York
Other Hispanic	3,052	20.9	California, New York, New Mexico

Source: Cary Davis, Carl Haub, and JoAnne Willette, "U.S. Hispanics: Changing the Face of America," Population Bulletin, Vol.38, No.3 (Population Reference Bureau, Inc.: Washington, D.C., 1983), p.9.

Table 24 below shows how the U.S. Hispanic population has grown over the past three decades compared to the growth of the total U.S. population. The U.S. Hispanic population grew by 265 percent between 1950 and 1980, compared to just under 50 percent for the U.S. population as a whole.

Table 24

Total U.S. and Hispanic Population
1950-1980

(Numbers in millions)

Year	Total U.S. population	Hispanic Population	Hispanic population increase in preceding decade	Hispanic percent of U.S. population
1950	151.3	4.0	---	2.7
1960	179.3	6.9	2.9	3.9
1970	203.2	10.5	3.6	5.2
1980	226.5	14.6	4.1	6.4

Source: Cary Davis, Carl Haub, and JoAnne Willette, "U.S. Hispanics: Changing the Face of America," Population Bulletin, Vol.38, No.3 (Population Reference Bureau, Inc.: Washington, D.C.,1983),p.8.

The future growth of the Hispanic American population depends on several unpredictable factors, including future legal and illegal immigration. Table 25 below projects the growth of the Hispanic population to the year 2020 using net annual immigration levels of 500,000 and 1 million. The figure of 500,000 more closely reflects official net immigration figures, and the figure of 1 million is based on higher estimates of recent net illegal immigration. As Table 25 shows, the Hispanic population could grow to 47 million by the year 2020 with annual net immigration at 1 million. At that point, Hispanic Americans would be the largest minority group in the nation.

Table 25

U.S. Population in 1980 and
Projected into the years 2000 and 2020

Racial/ethnic Group	1980 Number (mil)	1980 Percent of total	2000 Number (mil)	2000 Percent of total	2020 Number (mils)	2020 Percent of total
If net immigration = 500,000 per year						
Total U.S. population	226.5	100.0	267.4	100.1	291.5	100.0
White non-Hispanic	181.0	79.9	198.9	74.4	202.7	69.5
Hispanic	14.6	6.4	23.8	8.9	32.4	11.1
If net immigration = 1 million per year						
Total U.S. population			279.1	100.0	316.9	100.0
White non-Hispanic			200.3	71.7	205.6	64.9
Hispanic			30.3	10.8	46.6	14.7

Source: Cary Davis, Carl Haub, and JoAnne Willette, "U.S. Hispanics: Changing the Face of America," Population Bulletin, Vol.38, No.3 (Population Reference Bureau, Inc.: Washington, D.C., 1983), p.39.

Hispanic Americans are an overwhelmingly urban population. Almost 80 percent live in cities or suburban towns, and fully 50 percent live in the central cities. By contrast, only 75 percent of all Americans live in metropolitan areas, and only 30 percent live in central cities. Cities with large numbers of Hispanic residents offer Hispanic Americans a community in which to share Hispanic customs, language, tastes, and protection from discrimination. Table 26 below lists the metropolitan areas in the U.S. with more than 100,000 Hispanic residents. Table 27 below lists the metropolitan areas with 10 percent or more Hispanic residents.

Table 26

1980 Hispanic Population of
Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas
(100,000 or Greater)

(Ranked by Hispanic Population)

Metropolitan Area	Hispanic Population	Total Population	% of Total
Los Angeles-Long Beach, CA	2,066,103	7,477,503	27.6
New York, NY-NJ	1,493,148	9,120,346	16.4
Miami, FL	580,994	1,625,781	35.7
Chicago, IL	580,609	7,103,624	8.2
San Antonio, TX	481,511	1,071,954	44.9
Houston, TX	424,903	2,905,353	14.6
San Francisco-Oakland, CA	351,698	3,250,630	10.8
El Paso, TX	297,001	479,899	61.9
Riverside-San Bernardino-Ontario, CA	290,280	1,558,182	18.6
Anaheim-Santa Ana-Garden Grove, CA	286,339	1,932,709	14.8
San Diego, CA	275,177	1,861,846	14.8
Dallas-Fort Worth, TX	249,614	2,974,805	8.4
McAllen-Pharr-Edinburg, TX	230,212	283,229	81.3
San Jose, CA	226,611	1,295,071	17.5
Phoenix, AZ	199,003	1,509,052	13.2
Denver-Boulder, CO	173,773	1,620,902	10.7
Albuquerque, NM	164,200	454,499	36.1
Brownsville-Harlingen-San Benito, TX	161,654	209,727	77.1
Corpus Christi, TX	158,119	326,228	48.5
Fresno, CA	150,790	514,621	29.3
Jersey City, NJ	145,163	556,972	26.1
Newark, NJ	132,372	1,965,969	6.7
Philadelphia, PA-NJ	116,280	4,716,818	2.5
Oxnard-Simi Valley-Ventura, CA	113,192	529,174	21.4
Tucson, AZ	111,418	531,443	21.0
Nassau-Suffolk, NY	101,975	2,605,813	3.9
Sacramento, CA	101,694	1,014,002	10.0

Source: 1980 U.S. Census data available by "Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas."

Table 27

1980 Gispanic Population of
Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas
(Ranked by Percent Hispanic)

Metropolitan Area	Hispanic Population	Total Population	% of Total
Laredo, TX	90,842	99,258	91.5
McAllen-Pharr-Edinburg, TX	230,212	283,229	81.3
Brownsville-Harlingen-San Benito, TX	161,654	209,727	77.1
El Paso, TX	297,001	479,899	61.9
Las Cruces, NM	50,204	96,340	52.1
Corpus Christi, TX	158,119	326,228	48.5
San Antonio, TX	481,511	1,071,954	44.9
Albuquerque, NM	164,200	454,499	36.1
Miami, FL	580,994	1,625,781	35.7
Pueblo, CO	41,631	125,972	33.0
Victoria, TX	20,944	68,807	30.4
Visalia-Tulare-Porterville, CA	73,298	245,738	29.8
Fresno, CA	150,790	514,621	29.3
Los Angeles-Long Beach, CA	2,066,103	7,477,503	27.6
Jersey City, NJ	145,163	556,972	26.1
Salinas-Seaside-Monterey, CA	75,129	290,444	25.9
Bakersfield, CA	87,026	403,089	21.6
Odessa, TX	24,831	115,374	21.5
Oxnard-Simi Valley-Ventura, CA	113,192	529,174	21.4
San Angelo, TX	17,953	84,748	21.2
Tucson, AZ	111,418	531,443	21.0
Lubbock, TX	41,428	211,651	19.6
Stockton, CA	66,565	347,342	19.2
Riverside-San Bernardino-Ontario, CA	290,280	1,558,182	18.6
Santa Barbara-Santa Maria-Lompoc, CA	55,356	298,694	18.5
Austin, TX	94,367	536,688	17.6
San Jose, CA	226,611	1,295,071	17.5
Greeley, CO	21,017	123,438	17.0
New York, NY-NJ	1,493,148	9,120,346	16.4
Modesto, CA	39,889	265,900	15.0
Midland, TX	12,323	82,636	14.9
Yakima, WA	25,455	172,508	14.8
San Diego, CA	275,177	1,861,846	14.8
Anaheim-Santa Ana-Garden Grove, CA	286,339	1,932,709	14.8
Santa Cruz, CA	27,648	188,141	14.7
Houston, TX	424,903	2,905,353	14.6
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic, NJ	62,123	447,585	13.9

Table 27 (continued)

1980 Hispanic Population of
Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas
(Ranked by Percent Hispanic)

Metropolitan Area	Hispanic Population	Total Population	% of Total
Phoenix, AZ	199,003	1,509,052	13.2
Galveston-Texas City, TX	23,557	195,940	12.0
Abilene, TX	16,106	139,192	11.6
San Francisco-Oakland, CA	351,698	3,250,630	10.8
Denver-Boulder, CO	173,773	1,620,902	10.7
Yuba City, CA	10,465	101,979	10.3
Killeen-Temple, TX	22,070	214,656	10.3
Bryan-College Station, TX	9,455	93,588	10.1
Vallejo-Fairfield-Napa, CA	33,409	334,402	10.0
Sacramento, CA	101,694	1,014,002	10.0

Source: 1980 U.S. Census data available by "Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas."

IV. INCOME AND POVERTY

Between 1983 and 1988 the poverty rate for all Americans fell from 15.3 percent to 14.9 percent. **For Hispanic Americans, however, the poverty rate increased from 28.1 percent to 34.2 percent**. As of 1984, the poverty rate for Hispanic children, was 39 percent and rising. The deteriorating economic situation of Hispanic Americans is nothing new. In 1988 Hispanic family income fell to 74 percent of white non-Hispanic family income, and Hispanic poverty rose by one-third. Simply put, **more than one out of every four Hispanic Americans lives in poverty**, and the situation is getting worse.

There are many reasons, and even more theories, to explain the economic decline of Hispanic Americans. The steady stream of low-skilled and poor Hispanics who enter the U.S. every year undoubtedly lowers the economic statistics for Hispanic Americans as a whole. Though there is a growing Hispanic middle class in the U.S., immigration, along with a high fertility rate, contributes to an even faster growth rate of poor Hispanics. Furthermore, **Hispanic Americans as a group are younger than Americans as a whole**, and that lowers the average income statistics for Hispanics because young workers generally make less money than older workers. Also, the economic recessions of the past decade have had a disproportionately destructive effect on low income groups, creating even greater barriers to Hispanic progress.

The explanations do not change the facts. The median weekly salary for an Hispanic American working a full-time job is $290. For white non-Hispanic workers the salary is $394. The discrepancy between Hispanic men and white non-Hispanic men is even greater: $307 per week compared to $465 per week.

Table 28 below shows the difference in median family income between Hispanic and white non-Hispanic families from 1972 to 1981. In 1981, for example, the median family income of Hispanics was only 70 percent of white non-Hispanic family income, one percentage point lower than a decade earlier. And because Hispanic families are on average larger than white non-Hispanic families, the family's income must stretch farther.

Table 28

Annual Median Income of Hispanic and White Families
1972-1981

(adjusted for inflation
by converting all dollar amounts to 1981 dollars)

Year	Median family income		Hispanic family income as percent of white income
	Hispanic	White	
1972	$17,790	25,107	71
1973	17,836	25,777	69
1974	17,594	24,728	71
1975	16,140	24,110	67
1976	16,390	24,823	66
1977	17,141	25,124	68
1978	17,518	25,606	68
1979	18,255	25,689	71
1980	16,242	24,176	67
1981	16,401	23,517	70

Source: Cary Davis, Carl Haub, and JoAnne Willette, "U.S. Hispanics: Changing the Face of America," Population Bulletin, Vol.38, No.3 (Population Reference Bureau, Inc.: Washington, D.C., 1983), p.37.

Table 29 below shows the percentage of Hispanic and white non-Hispanic families living below the poverty line from 1973 to 1981, along with a ratio of Hispanic to white poverty. As the table shows, roughly three times as many Hispanic families live in poverty (in proportion to their numbers) as white non-Hispanic families.

Table 29

Poverty Rate of Hispanic and White Families
1973-1981

Year	Percent of families below poverty level		Ratio of Hispanic to white poverty rate
	Hispanic	White	
1973	19.8	6.6	3.0
1974	21.2	6.8	3.1
1975	25.1	7.7	3.3
1976	23.1	7.1	3.3
1977	21.4	7.0	3.1
1978	20.4	6.9	3.0
1979	20.3	6.9	2.9
1980	23.2	8.0	2.9
1981	24.0	8.8	2.7

Source: Cary Davis, Carl Haub, and JoAnne Willette, "U.S. Hispanics: Changing the Face of America," Population Bulletin, Vol.38, No.3 (Population Reference Bureau, Inc.: Washington, D.C., 1983), p.37.

V. UNEMPLOYMENT

Unemployment among Hispanics fell from 8.8 percent to 8.2 percent during the past two years. Among Hispanic men, the unemployment rate fell from 8.7 percent to 8.1 percent between the fourth quarters of 1987 and 1988, and among Hispanic women the rate fell from 8.9 percent to 8.3 percent. Hispanic teenagers also benefited as unemployment among them declined from 22.3 percent to 22.0 percent.

Nevertheless, **unemployment among Hispanics is usually 40 to 50 percent higher than it is among Americans overall**. The ratio of Hispanic-to-white unemployment is 1.33 to 1. In other words, for every unemployed white non-Hispanic, there are almost one and one half unemployed Hispanics, and that situation has not changed significantly for more than a decade. In 1988 the unemployment rate for Hispanic Americans was 8.2 percent. For white non-Hispanics it was 4.7 percent, and for all Americans it was 5.5 percent.

Furthermore, Hispanics are more often underemployed than white non-Hispanic men. **Hispanic men and women must accept part-time jobs more often than white non-Hispanic men, even though they would prefer to work full-time**. Hispanic men are also more likely than white non-Hispanic men to work in jobs with high seasonal and cyclical unemployment, be overeducated for their jobs and earn poverty wages.

Table 30 on the following page shows unemployment rates by age and sex among all Americans, white non-Hispanics and Hispanics in 1988.

Table 30

Unemployment Rates by Age, Sex, and Hispanic Origin, 1984
(Civilian Workers)

Sex and Age	Total %	White %	Hispanic origin %
Total, 16 years and over	5.5	4.7	8.2
16 to 19 years	15.3	13.1	22.0
(16 to 17 years)	17.4	15.3	27.1
(18 to 19 years)	13.8	11.6	19.3
20 to 24 years	8.7	7.1	9.8
25 years and over	4.3	3.7	6.4
(25 to 54 years)	4.5	3.9	6.5
55 years and over	3.1	2.8	5.8
Men, 16 years and over	5.5	4.7	8.1
16 to 19 years	16.0	13.9	22.7
(16 to 17 years)	18.2	16.1	29.5
(18 to 19 years)	14.6	12.4	19.5
20 to 24 years	8.9	7.4	9.2
25 years and over	4.2	3.7	6.5
(25 to 54 years)	4.4	3.8	6.5
55 years and over	3.3	3.0	6.8
Women, 16 years and over	5.6	4.7	8.3
16 to 19 years	14.4	12.3	21.0
(16 to 17 years)	16.6	14.4	24.5
(18 to 19 years)	12.9	10.8	18.9
20 to 24 years	8.5	6.7	10.7
25 years and over	4.3	3.7	6.4
(25 to 54 years)	4.6	3.9	6.6
55 years and over	2.8	2.5	4.3

Source: Employment and Earnings, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, January, 1989, p. 210.

VI. LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

Almost fourteen million working-age Hispanics live in the United States. And because of immigration and the youth of the Hispanic American population (roughly a third are less than fifteen years old and about half are less than twenty-four years old), **the number of working-age Hispanics could double in the next ten years**. The number of Hispanic women who were working or looking for work grew by 82 percent during the eight years between 1973 and 1981.

Table 31 shows the labor force participation rates of Hispanics and all American adults, by gender. As Table 31 shows, the labor force participation rate for Hispanic men is 85.2 percent, while the figure for all adult American men was only 79.4 percent. That means a larger proportion of Hispanic men are either working or looking for work than adult American men as a whole. Among Hispanic women, the proportion working or looking for work is 48.8 percent, almost equal to the 51.3 percent rate for all adult American women.

However, the labor force participation rate for Hispanics is inflated because Hispanics are younger than Americans overall, and young adults are more likely to be working or looking for work. As Table 31 shows, within several age groups the labor force participation rate for Hispanic men is lower than the rate for all American men. It is only in two age groups (20-24 and 55 and over) that Hispanic men have a higher labor force participation rate than all American men. The situation is similar for Hispanic women.

Table 31

Labor Force Participation Rates of Hispanic and All U.S. Adults, by Sex
1980
Percent in Labor Force

Age Group	All men	Hispanic men	All women	Hispanic women
Total, 20 and over	79.4	85.2	51.3	48.8
20-24	86.0	88.2	69.9	57.1
25-34	95.3	93.5	65.4	53.9
35-44	95.5	94.1	65.5	56.0
45-54	91.2	91.0	59.9	52.0
55-64	72.3	72.5	41.5	32.9
65 and over	19.1	19.4	8.1	4.9

Source: Cary Davis, Carl Haub, and JoAnne Willette, "U.S. Hispanics: Changing the Face of America," Population Bulletin, Vol.38, No.3 (Population Reference Bureau, Inc.: Washington, D.C., 1983), p.34.

VII. OCCUPATIONS

Hispanic workers are more often employed in low pay and low skill jobs than other Americans. Hispanic men are disproportionately represented in service jobs and as laborers, fabricators and machine operators. The proportion of Hispanic men who work in farming, forestry and fishing is more than double that for white non-Hispanic men (9 percent compared to 5 percent).

Among Hispanic women, almost one-fourth work in service jobs, and more than one-fourth work in clerical and administrative support jobs. Like Hispanic men, Hispanic women are also disproportionately employed as laborers, fabricators and machine operators--especially textile, furnishings and apparel machine operators.

Generally speaking, Hispanic workers are employed in businesses that employ comparatively small numbers of employees--for example, restaurants, retail stores, and repair and personal service businesses. Hispanic workers are also heavily employed in industries such as hospitals and educational institutions, where labor unions are scarce and bitterly opposed by employers.

The number of Hispanic workers employed in highly skilled and higher paying jobs such as managerial and professional occupations is relatively small. However, the occupational status of Hispanic workers is improving. For example, the percentage of Hispanic men who work as managers, professionals, technicians and skilled craftsmen increased from 32 percent to 36 percent between 1973 and 1981. Among Hispanic women the move to higher skilled jobs was even more pronounced.

Table 32 below shows the percentage of Hispanic workers in major occupational categories. Data are also shown for all American workers. For example, only 7.2 percent of Hispanic workers are employed in managerial and professional jobs.

Table 33 below shows the percentage of Hispanic workers who are employed in the food and allied service trades. Since Hispanic workers are 5.4 percent of the total American civilian workforce, Table 33 shows that Hispanic workers are heavily represented in industries such as food and kindred products (12.1 percent), bakery products (10.7 percent), and hotels and motels (15.1 percent).

Table 32

Employed Civilians by Occupational Category and Percentage Hispanic

Occupation	Total (numbers in Thousands)	% Hispanic
TOTAL (All civilian workers)	114,968	7.2
Managerial and Professional	29,190	7.2
Technical, Sales, and Administrative Support	35,532	5.8
Service Occupations	15,332	10.2
Precision Production, Construction and Repair	13,664	8.2
Operators, Fabricators, and Laborers	17,814	1.1
Farming, Forestry, and Fishing	3,437	13.0

Source: Employment and Earnings, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, January, 1989, p.185.

Table 11

Hispanic Employment in the Food and Allied Service Trades
1988

Industry	Total employed civilians (in thousands)	Hispanics as % of total
TOTAL (all civilians workers)	105,001	5.4
Food and Kindred Products	1,701	12.1
Bakery Products	229	10.7
Retail Trade	19,085	7.4
Miscellaneous General Merchandise Stores	136	9.4
Grocery Stores	2,708	6.9
Shoe Stores	163	8.7
Eating and Drinking Places	5,480	9.9
Finance, Insurance, and Real Estate	7,921	5.7
Banking	2,008	6.4
Services	37,043	6.5
Hotels and Motels	1,233	15.1
Laundry, Dry Cleaning, and Garment Services	477	13.3
Beauty Shops	794	8.1
Barber Shops	91	10.4
Professional and Related Services	23,725	4.9
Hospitals	4,520	5.3

Source: Employment and Earnings, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, January, 1989, pp.194-197.

VIII. UNIONS

Of the 7,623,000 employed wage and salary workers of Hispanic origin in the United States in 1988, 1,220,000 were union members, and a total of 1,353,000 were represented by unions. That means 16 percent of all Hispanic workers were members of unions, and 17.7 percent were represented by unions. By contrast, 16 percent of white non-Hispanic workers were members of unions in 1988, and 18.1 percent were represented by unions. Black workers had a higher rate of union participation than Hispanic workers--22.9 percent of Black workers were union members, and 25.9 percent were represented by unions. Table 34 below shows union affiliation by race, Hispanic origin and sex in 1988.

Table 34

Employed Wage and Salary Workers by Sex, Race, Hispanic Origin and Union Affiliation, 1988
(numbers in thousands)

Age, sex, race, Hispanic origin	Total employed	Members of Unions[1]		Represented by unions[2]	
		Total	Percent of employed	Total	Percent of employed
White, 16 years and over	87,176	13,932	16.0	15,759	18.1
Men	46,783	9,294	19.9	10,210	21.8
Women	40,393	4,638	11.5	5,549	13.7
Black, 16 years and over	11,176	2,559	22.9	2,898	25.9
Men	5,502	1,438	26.1	1,601	29.1
Women	5,674	1,121	19.8	1,297	22.9
Hispanic origin, 16 years and over	7,623	1,220	16.0	1,353	17.7
Men	4,535	837	18.5	913	20.1
Women	3,088	384	12.4	440	14.3

1 Data refer to members of a labor union of employee association similar to a union.

2 Data refer to members of a labor union or an employee association similar to a union as well as workers who report no union affiliation but whose jobs are covered by a union or an employee association contract.

Source: Employment and Earnings, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, January, 1989, p. 225.

The relatively high rate of Hispanic union membership is particularly significant considering the areas and industries in which Hispanics live and work. Hispanic workers are concentrated in the Southwest and in largely unorganized industries, where union traditions are weak and employers may be openly hostile to unions. And because Hispanic workers are concentrated in the service sector of the economy, they tend to work in businesses with relatively small workforces, a factor which has traditionally discouraged union organizing. But even in those industries, **Hispanic workers are more likely to join unions than other workers**. In eating and drinking establishments, for example, the unionization rate of Hispanic workers is roughly twice the rate for workers overall.

Hispanic workers must also overcome obstacles and barriers to union organizing which are unique to them. For example, many Hispanic workers find it difficult to communicate in English. Fifteen percent of adult Hispanic workers do not speak English, and Spanish is the primary language for almost 30 percent of Hispanic workers. Unless information is provided in Spanish, **many Hispanic workers may not be able to fully understand the issues and strategies of union organizing and the importance of their participation in the process**. To remedy this problem, many affiliates of the Food and Allied Service Trades Department have developed material written in Spanish, which is available from individual unions. The AFL-CIO has films and publications in Spanish (Appendix B of this report contains a list of Spanish language labor films, and Appendix C contains a list of labor publications in Spanish).

The benefits of union membership for Hispanic workers are clear. In 1988 the median wage of a non-union Hispanic worker was only $270 per week. But for an Hispanic worker who was a member of a union, the median wage was $400 per week--a difference of $130 per week. Hispanic union members also earn better wages than white non-Hispanic workers who are not members of unions, and Hispanic union members earn better wages than American workers overall. Table 35 below shows the median usual weekly earnings of full-time workers by sex, race, Hispanic origin and union affiliation in 1988.

Table 35

Median Usual Weekly Earnings of
Full-time Wage and Salary Workers by
Sex, Race, Hispanic Origin, and Union Affiliation
1988

Sex, Race and Hispanic origin	Total	Members of unions[1]	Represented by unions[2]	Non-union[3]
Total, 16 years and over	$385	$480	$476	$356
Men, 16 years and over	449	506	505	416
Women, 16 years and over	315	403	399	300
White, 16 years and over	394	488	484	368
Men	465	513	512	432
Women	318	410	406	305
Black, 16 years and over	314	417	413	279
Men	347	458	455	298
Women	288	374	369	263
Hispanic origin, 16 years and over	290	400	397	270
Men	307	431	430	283
Women	260	328	325	249

[1]Data refer to members of a labor union or an employee association similar to a union.

[2]Data refer to members of a labor union or an employee association similar to a union as well as workers who report no union affiliation but whose jobs are covered by a union or an employee association contract.

[3]Data refer to workers who report no union membership or coverage.

Source: Employment and Earnings, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, January, 1989, p.227.

The benefits of a union contract for Hispanic workers go beyond better wages. Union membership can give Hispanic Americans the tools and skills to overcome the challenges they face on and off the job, by developing leaders and teaching the mechanics of the democratic process. The growth in the membership of the Labor Council for Latin American Advancement (LCLAA), the labor movement's bridge to the greater Hispanic community, is testimony to the development of Hispanic leaders throughout the labor movement. (Appendix A of this report contains a list of key national Hispanic organizations, compiled by the Labor Council for Latin American Advancement.)

Union membership makes Hispanic workers part of a comprehensive legislative and political program. Full employment, equitable tax reform, national health insurance, and greater citizen access to the political process are some of the labor movement's goals, and these goals are a vehicle through which Hispanic American citizens can achieve a full share of our nation's life and progress, both on and off the job.

IX. HOW BUSINESS TARGETS HISPANICS

To American business, Hispanic Americans are a newly discovered and rapidly growing "market segment" which, if approached with the correct marketing strategy, could mean billions of dollars in profits. The spending power of the Hispanic market (a most important fact about Hispanic Americans in the eyes of American business) is estimated to be more than $60 billion, and it is growing.

Large corporations are beginning to recognize that the Hispanic "market" is here to stay, and they are developing new strategies to attract that market. Budweiser, Sears Roebuck, Westinghouse Electric, AT&T, and even the U.S. Navy are just a few of those who advertise in the Spanish language media. The Coca-Cola company has budgeted billions to attract the domestic Hispanic market.

When the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company discovered the Hispanic market a few years ago, it decided to develop a comprehensive marketing program to closely identify Metropolitan with Hispanics. The first step was to hire a Miami research company to do a detailed door-to-door survey of Hispanic attitudes toward life insurance. Focus groups were also recruited in Hispanic communities throughout the U.S. to find out what Hispanics want and need from life insurance. Once the research was completed, Metropolitan hired an Hispanic-owned advertising agency to prepare advertisements in both Spanish and English.

The key to Metropolitan's campaign is language. Research revealed Hispanics want a choice of receiving information in either Spanish or English, or both. So Metropolitan's entire sales operation was readied to work in both languages. Potential customers who call Metropolitan's toll-free number can be served in Spanish or English, and computer printouts of sample insurance policies can be provided in both languages.

Part of Metropolitan's Hispanic market advertising is aimed at recruiting a bilingual Hispanic sales force. A bilingual task force of phone operators was hired to staff Metropolitan's huge, 24-hour-a-day telemarketing center in Oklahoma, and over a hundred Hispanic sales representatives have been recruited and placed across the country.

To reach the Hispanic market, advertisers often aim their commercials not only at Hispanic Americans as a market segment, but also at various Hispanic "subsegments." For example, advertisements for the Miller Brewing company divide Hispanic Americans into two subsegments--Mexican and Caribbean--and reflect the lifestyles and tastes of each subsegment. Thus, commercials aimed at Hispanic Americans from the Caribbean focus on the game of soccer, while commercials aimed at Mexican Americans focus on the game of dominos. The ad men for Budweiser subsegment Hispanics into four markets--Cuban, Puerto Rican, Tex/Mex and Chicano. The "Budweiser is for you" theme is pushed to each subsegment with different visuals, voiceovers and music. The decision to segment or subsegment, say advertisers, must be based on thorough research and market testing.

Once the ad men have packaged their message to the Hispanic market and its various subsegments, they can turn to the Spanish speaking media for help in transmitting their message. **There is a large number of Spanish language newspapers, and a growing number of radio and television stations broadcast in Spanish throughout the country.** (A list of these newspapers and radio and television stations appears in Appendix D of this report.)

The variations in commercials aimed at different subsegments of the Hispanic market may be meaningless to non-Hispanics, but ad men who produce them believe using the wrong actress or actor, or even using the wrong word or meaning, can ruin a product's appeal to a specific market. The Coors beer company, for example, filmed a commercial in San Antonio and showed it in California, where it was a great success. But the same commercial failed in San Antonio because it had been filmed at a location which is not popular with Mexican Americans who live in San Antonio.

The basic idea behind subsegmenting the Hispanic market is that not all Hispanics are the same, and if advertisers want to maximize their appeal to Hispanic Americans, they cannot always treat Cuban Americans the same as Mexican Americans, nor even Mexican Americans who live in Texas the same as Mexican Americans who live in California. The reason is simple: **each subsegment of the Hispanic market is different.** Some subsegments of the Hispanic market have more money, some speak English better, some have been in the U.S. longer, and some are better educated than others.

Table 36, from 1984, shows the purchasing power of the Hispanic and white non-Hispanic "markets" according to various characteristics such as region of the country and household size.

Table 36

Purchasing Power of the Hispanic and White Non-Hispanic Markets by Selected Characteristics - 1984

	Hispanics	Whites
Household money income aggregate total ($Bil.) in 1982	$ 76.50	$ 1,852.30
Median Income	$ 16,288.00	$ 24,603.00
Mean Income	$ 18,732.00	$ 25,311.00
% of Total By Selected Characteristics		
Residence		
Metropolitan Area	86.2%	67.0%
Central Cities	52.0	26.0
Suburbs	34.2	41.0
Nonmetro areas	13.8	33.0
Region		
Northwest	20.2	21.9
Midwest	6.8	26.4
South	31.5	31.8
West	41.5	19.9
Sex		
Male Household Head	69.3	72.9
One-person Household	6.1	6.3
Female Household Head	30.7	27.1
One-person Household	6.9	5.2
Age of Household Head		
15-24 years old	8.5	6.7
25-34	30.7	22.3
35-44	24.1	18.8
45-54	16.4	14.5
55-64	11.1	15.9
65 and older	9.3	21.8
Household Size		
1 person	14.1	23.1
2 persons	20.5	32.4
3 persons	19.8	17.6
4 persons	20.6	15.9
5 persons	12.2	7.0
6 persons	6.8	2.6
7 persons or more	6.0	1.4
Occupation		
White-Collar Workers	30.8	51.5
Blue-Collar Worker	47.7	35.6
Farm Worker	7.1	4.2
Service Worker	14.5	8.7

Source: D. Carlos Balkin, "The Hispanic Market: Leading Indicators," Hispanic Business, December, 1984, p.24.

APPENDIX A

Key National Hispanic Organizations

AMERICAN G.I. FORUM
P.O. Box 3012
El Paso, TX 79923
(915) 722-1442 (office)
National Chairman: Eduardo Bernaldez

Washington, D.C. Office
20 F Street, N.W. 2nd Floor
Washington, D.C. 20001
(202) 727-6523 (office)
State Chairman: Eduardo Terrones

ASPIRA OF AMERICA, INC.
114 E. 28th Street, 3rd Floor
New York, NY 10016
(212) 889-69101
Executive Director: Dr. Juan Rosario

ASSOCIATION NACIONAL PRO PERSONAS MAYORES
2727 W. 6th Street, #270
Los Angeles, CA 90057
(213) 487-1922
National President/Executive Director: Carmela Lacayo

COMISION FEMENIL MEXICANA NACIONAL, INC.
379 S. Loma Drive
Los Angeles, CA 90017
(213) 484-1515
President: Leticia Quezada

CONGRESSIONAL HISPANIC CAUCUS (LEGISLATIVE SUPPORT)
House Annex II, Room 557
Washington, D.C. 20515
(202) 226-3430
Executive Director: Susan Herrera

CONGRESSIONAL HISPANIC CAUCUS (EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE)
504 C Street, N.E.
Washington, D.C. 20002
(202) 543-1771
Executive Director: Lillian Fernandez

CONSORTIUM OF NATIONAL HISPANIC ORGANIZATIONS
2727 Ontario Road, N.W. Suite 200
Washington, D.C. 20009
(202) 387-3300
Chairperson: Dr. Pepe Barron

CUBAN AMERICAN DEMOCRATS
c/o Miami Savings Bank
261 N.E. First Street
Miami, FL 33132
(305) 358-6620
President: Luis Lauredo

CUBAN AMERICAN FOUNDATION
1000 Thomas Jefferson Street, N.W. Suite 601
Washington, D.C. 20011
(202) 265-2822
Executive Director: Frank Calzon

CUBAN AMERICAN LEGAL DEFENSE AND EDUCATION FUND
2119 S. Webster Street
Fort Wayne, In 46804
(219) 745-5421
Chairperson: Dr. Graciela Beecher

CUBAN NATIONAL PLANNING COUNCIL
300 S.W. 12th Avenue, 3rd Floor
Miami, FL 33130
(305) 642-3484
Executive Director: Guarione M. Diaz

EL CONGRESO NACIONAL DE ASUNTOS COLEGIALES
2717 Ontario Road, N.W. Suite 200
Washington, D.C. 20009
(202) 387-3300
Director: Dr. Pepe Barron

HISPANIC POLICY DEVELOPMENT PROJECT (HPDP)
1001 Connecticut Ave., N.W. Suite 310
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 822-8414
President: Sioban Oppenheimer-Nicolau

INSTITUTE OF PUERTO RICAN POLICY, INC.
114 E. 28th Street, 3rd Floor
New York, NY 10016
(212) 689-6331
Executive Director: Angelo Falcon

LABOR COUNCIL FOR LATIN AMERICAN ADVANCEMENT
815 16th Street, N.W. Suite 707
Washington, D.C. 20006
(202) 347-4223
Executive Director: Alfredo C. Montoya
National President: Henry L. Lacayo

LATINO INSTITUTE
53 W. Jackson Boulevard, Suite 940
Chicago, IL 60604
(312) 663-3603
Executive Director: Mario Aranda

LEAGUE OF UNITED LATIN AMERICAN CITIZENS (LULAC)
P.O. Box 13DD
San Antonio, TX 78201
(512) 223-3377 (office)
National President: Carlos Moran

400 First Street, N.W. #721
Washington, D.C. 20001
(202) 628-[illegible]16 (office)
Executive Director: Joseph Trevino

MEXICAN AMERICAN LEGAL DEFENSE AND EDUCATION FUND (MALDEF)
28 Geary Street, 3rd Floor
San Francisco, CA 94108
(415) 981-5800
President: Antonia Hernandez

MEXICAN AMERICAN WOMENS NATIONAL ASSOCIATION (MANA)
1201 16th Street, N.W. Suite 420
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 223-3440
President: Veronica Collazo

MIDWEST VOTER REGISTRATION EDUCATION PROJECT (MVREP)
50 W. Broad Street, Suite 1225
Columbus, OH 43215
(614) 464-1116
Executive Director: Juan Andrade

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATION (NABE)
1201 16th Street, N.W. Suite 407
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 822-7870
President: Dr. Gene Chavez

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF CUBAN AMERICAN WOMEN AND MEN OF THE USA, INC.
P.O. Box 11012
Washington, D.C. 20008
(202) 686-6506
National President: Dr. Ana Maria Perera

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF CUBAN AMERICAN WOMEN, USA, INC.
2119 S. Webster Street
Fort Wayne, IN 46804
(219) 745-5421
President: Dr. Graciela Beecher

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF LATINO ELECTED AND APPOINTED OFFICIALS (NALEO)
420 S. Capitol Street, S.E.
Washington, D.C. 20003
(202) 546-2536
National Director: Harry Pachon

NATIONAL COALITION OF HISPANIC MENTAL HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES ORGANIZATIONS (COSSMHO)
1030 15th Street, N.W. Suite 1053
Washington, D.C. 20005
(202) 371-2100
Chairperson: Fernando Oaxaca
National Director: Dr. Jane Delgado

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF LA RAZA
20 F Street, N.W. 2nd Floor
Washington, D.C. 20001
(202) 628-9600
President: Raul Yzaguirre

NATIONAL PUERTO RICAN COALITION, INC. (NPRC)
701 N. Fairfax Street, Suite 310
Alexandria, VA 22314
(703) 684-0020
Chairperson: Millie Torres

NATIONAL PUERTO RICAN FORUM, INC.
31 E. 32nd Street
New York, NY 10016
(212) 685-2311
Chairperson: Hector Velasquez

1511 K Street, N.W. Suite 537
Washington, D.C. 20005
(202) 638-2211
Director of Center: Gloria Rodriguez

PUERTO RICAN LEGAL DEFENSE AND EDUCATION FUND (PRLDEF)
99 Hudson Street, 14th Floor
New York, NY 10013
(212) 219-3360
Chairperson: Jorge Batista, Esq.
President: Linda Flores

SER -- JOBS FOR PROGRESS
1355 River Bend Drive, Suite 350
Dallas, TX 75247
(214) 631-3999
Chairperson: Angel Lopez

SOUTHWEST VOTER REGISTRATION EDUCATION PROJECT (SVREP)
201 North St. Mary's, Suite 501
San Antonio, TX 78205
(512) 222-0224
Executive Director: William C. Velasquez

U.S. CATHOLIC CONFERENCE, SECRETARIAT FOR HISPANIC AFFAIRS
1312 Massachusetts Ave., N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20005
(202) 659-6876
Executive Director: Pablo Sedillo

Source: Labor Council for Latin American Advancement

APPENDIX B

Spanish Language Films

Available from: AFL-CIO Film Division
815 16th Street, N.W., Room 407
Washington, D.C. 20006
(202) 637-5153

THE GRIEVANCE

Produced by the National Film Board of Canada.
32 minutes. 1955. Rental $5

A man who refuses to work on a truck cab which he believes is too hot for safety is transferred to another job at lower pay. This film shows how a grievance is processed through all of the steps provided in the contract. The steward checks the facts and the contract language, and proceeds through each step, and the case goes to arbitration.

THE SHOP STEWARD

Produced by the National Film Board of Canada.
22 minutes. 1952. Rental $5

The job of the shop steward, who is charged with enforcing the contract and processing grievances, is explored in this film. The problems facing a newly elected shop steward and the way he goes about solving them will help new stewards and others understand the role of the steward.

A TIME OF CHALLENGE

Produced by the AFL-CIO.
27 minutes. 1981. Rental $5.

Commemorating the 100th anniversary of the founding of the labor federation, this film combines a look at the past with a look at unions today. There are some exceptional photographs and historic film footage portraying the founding of the AFL in 1881 and 1886, early union leaders, and strikes which played a part in the long struggle for economic and social justice. Interviews with union members today reveal how they feel about their unions and the problems they face in the 1980's.

REFLECTIONS: GEORGE MEANY

Produced by the International Communications Agency.
52 minutes. 1979. Rental $5.

More than a half century of labor history unfolds in this relaxed, intimate conversation with George Meany as he reflects on his lifetime of service to American workers. This documentary on the life of the late President of the AFL-CIO was originally produced by the International Communications Agency for use overseas. The film combines in-depth interviews with Meany along with documentary footage, photographs and cartoons.

APPENDIX C

Spanish Language Publications

Available from: AFL-CIO PAMPHLET DIVISION
815 16th Street, N.W., Room 205
Washington, D.C. 20006
(202) 637-5184

	Charge	How Many
This is the AFL-CIO	25¢ each $20/100	_____
Why Unions? (also available in Laotian and Vietnamese)	25¢ each $20/100	_____
AFL-CIO Manual for Shop Stewards	50¢ each $40/100	_____
How to Run a Union Meeting	50¢ each $40/100	_____
A Short History of American Labor	25¢ each $25/100	_____
Community Service Pamphlets:		
Five Objectives	2¢ each $1.50/100	_____
Legal:		
Immigration Legislation	5¢ each	_____
The Law Says You Have A Right	10¢ each	_____

Please send to:

Name: _____

Address: _____

_____

_____

APPENDIX D

Spanish T.V. and Radio Stations and Newspapers in 10 Cities

New York City, NY

Television

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/week
WNJU	100
WXTV	126
WNBC	.5
WOR-TV	.5

Radio

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/day
WADO-AM	24
WBNX-AM	24
WJIT-AM	24
WSKQ-AM	24

Print

Title	Frequency
Nuevo Amanecer	6 per week
El Diaro-La Prensa	weekly
La Voz Hispania	weekly
El Tiempo de Nuevo York	weekly
Noticias del Mundo	daily

Los Angeles, CA

Television

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/week
KMEX	168
KSCI	45

Los Angeles, CA (continued)

Radio

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/week
KPFK-FM	4
KLVE-FM	168
KTNQ-AM	168
KWKW-AM	168
KALI-AM	168
KCSN-FM	2
KMAX-FM	25
KPCC-FM	1
XEPRS-AM	168
KSKQ-AM	168
KXLU-FM	24

Print

Title	Frequency
La Opinion	daily
La Presna de Los Angeles	weekly
Belvedere Citizen	weekly
Caminos	monthly
City Terrace Comet	weekly
Eagle Rock Sentinel	2 per week
Eastside Journal	weekly
Eastside Sun	weekly
El Sereno Star	weekly
Ela Brooklyn-Belvedere Comet	weekly
Highland Park News Herald & Journal	weekly
Lincoln Heights Bulletin News	weekly
Mexican American Sun	weekly
Montebello Comet	weekly
Monterey Pk. Comet	weekly
Northeast Star Review	weekly
South Pasadena Journal	weekly
Wyvernwood Chronicle	weekly
East Los Angeles Tribune	weekly
Mr. TeVe	weekly
Q-vo	bimonthly
Noticias del Mundo	6 days

Miami, FL

Television

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/week
WLTV	133
WPBT	3
HIT-TV (Cable)	168
WSCV	116.5

Radio

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/day
WCMQ-AM	24
WCMQ-FM	24
WRHC-AM	24
WOCN-AM	
WQBA-AM	24
WQBA-FM	24
WSUA-AM	24

Print

Title	Frequency
Diario de las Americas	6 days
El Miami Herald	daily
Bienvenidos a Miami	2 per month
Miami Mensual	monthly
Replica	weekly
La Voz	2 per month
Los Noticias de Hialeah	weekly
Vista	monthly
Donde	5 per year

San Antonio, TX

Television

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/week
KWEX	126
SATV	92

San Antonio, TX (continued)

Radio

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/day
KCOR-AM	24
KEDA-AM	24
KFHM-AM	12
KXET-FM	24

Print

Title	Frequency
La Vox de San Antionio	weekly
Southside Sun	weekly
Westside Sun	weekly
Visitante Dominical	weekly

San Francisco, CA

Television

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/week
KDTV	140
KTVU	.5

Radio

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/week
KBRG-FM	168
KIQI-AM	84
KOFY-AM	84
KPOO-FM	12
KNTA	168
KAZA-AM	84

San Francisco, CA (continued)

Print

Title	Frequency
El Mundo	weekly
El Tecolote	monthly
Tiempo Latino	weekly
La Presna de San Francisco	n/a
El Bohemio	2 per month

Houston, TX

Television

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/day
K45AK	24

Radio

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/day
KEYH-AM	12
KLAT-AM	24
KLVL-AM	24
KXYZ-AM	24
KFRD-AM	6
KYST-AM	24
KHCB-FM	2
KUHF-FM	7 per week
KXKX-FM	24

Print

Title	Frequency
Revista Chicano-Riquena	4 per year
La Vox De Houston	weekly
El Sol	weekly
Informacion	2 per month
El Mexica	weekly
El Mundo	weekly
Los Noticias de Fort Bend	weekly
Del Universal	weekly

Chicago, IL

Television

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/week
WCIU	33.5
WCFC	3
WBBS	56

Radio

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/week
WEDC-AM	66.5
WSBC-AM	38
WOJO-FM	168
WONX-AM	77
WKKD-AM	6
WCEV-AM	20.5
WCRW-FM	34
WMBI-AM	12
WVVX-FM	33
WTAQ-AM	12.6

Print

Title	Frequency
El Heraldo de Chicago	weekly
El Manana Newspaper	6 days/week
La Raza	weekly
Logan Square Extra	weekly
Northwest Extra	weekly
Wicker Park/West Extra	weekly

Rio Grande Valley

Radio

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/day
KGBT-AM	24
KIRT-AM	24
KIWW-FM	24
KQXX-FM	24
KOIR-FM	24

Rio Grande Valley (continued)

Television

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/day
K-12-TV	24

Print

Title	Frequency
El Heraldo de Brownsville	6 per week

Albuquerque/Santa Fe, NM

Radio

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/week
KABQ-AM	168
KANW-FM	3
KARS-AM	35
KLTN-AM	168
KXKS-AM	84
KDCE-AM	15.75
KUNM-FM	18.5
KNMX-AM	84

Television

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/week
KGSW	1
K48AM	168

Print

Title	Frequency
El Hispano	weekly

El Paso/Juarez, TX

Television

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/week
KINT	87.5
KCOS	3
KCIK	2
KVIA	.5
KDBC	.5
XEJ-TV	126
XHIJ-TV	119

Radio

Call letters	Spanish Language hours/week
KAMA-AM	87.5
KTEP-FM	10
NTNR-FM	19.5
KALY-AM	168
XEROK-AM	168
XEWG-AM	133
XEJ-AM	168
XEP-AM	168
XEPZ-AM	98
XEYZ-AM	168
XECJC-AM	112
XHTO-FM	126
XHEM-FM	126
XHIM-FM	168
XEF-AM	154
XEWR-AM	98
XEFV-AM	98
XEJPV-AM	98
XHH-FM	140
XHGU-FM	168
XHP-FM	168

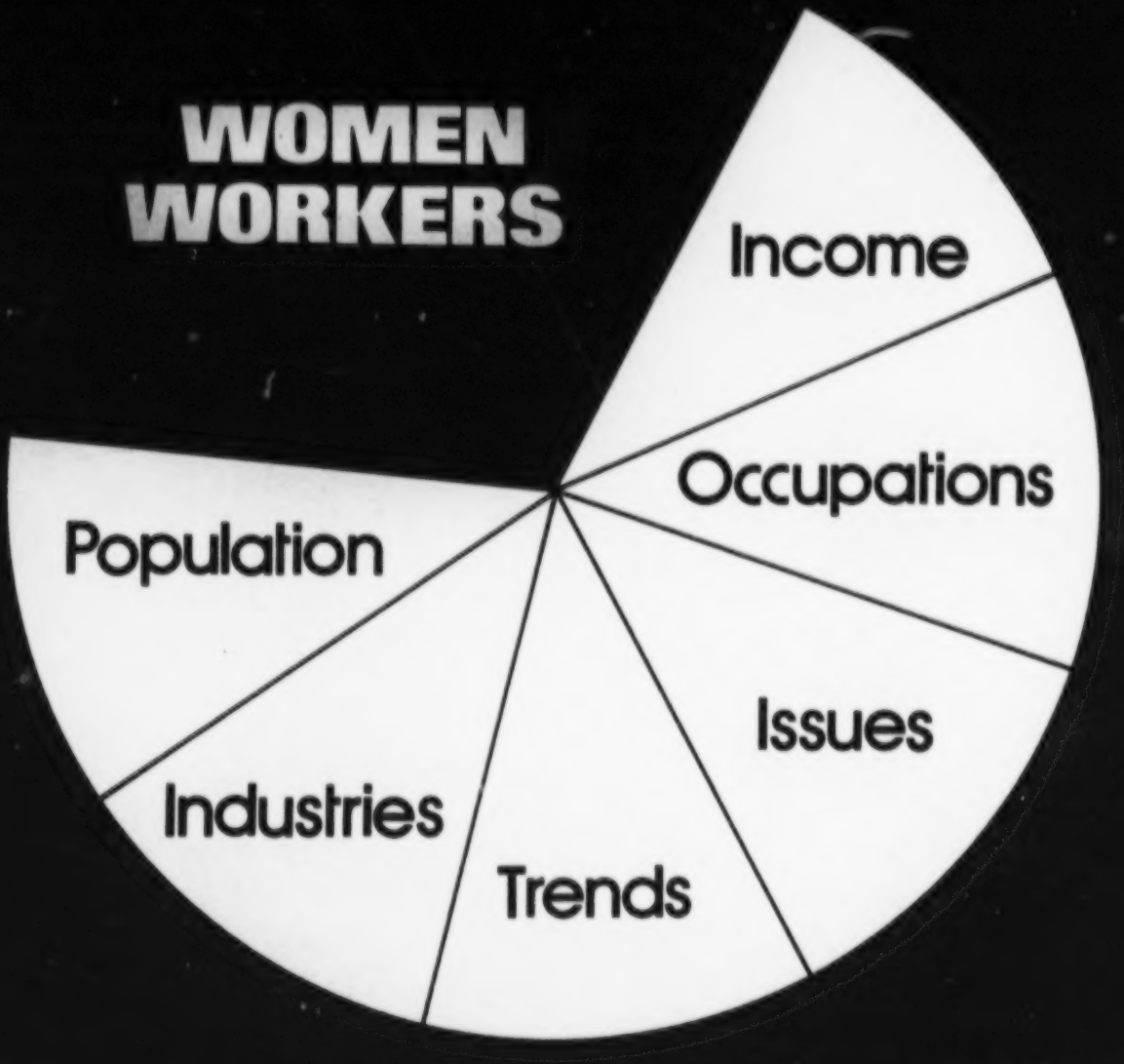
El Paso/Jaurez, TX (continued)

Print

Title	Frequency
El Continental	6 days/week
El Fronterizo	daily
El Mexicano	6 days/week
El Universal	daily
El Diario	daily

Source: "Marketing to Hispanics: Understanding the People Behind the Numbers," Ed Fitch, editor, Advertising Age, March 21, 1985, pp.14-16.

FOCUS ON:


WOMEN WORKERS
Income
Occupations
Issues
Trends
Industries
Population

I. INTRODUCTION

Over the next ten years two out of every three new workers will be women, and by 1995 the majority of workers may be women. While surveys show that women are more likely to vote pro-union than men, women continue to be under-represented in unions. In 1988, there were 114,968,000 wage and salary workers in the United States, 45% of these were women. Of those 51,696,000 women workers, 12.6% were union members and 15% were represented by unions.

Not only are women entering the labor force at faster rates than men, but they are concentrated in the fast growing and under-unionized service sector. As a result, women workers represent a crucial challenge to the labor movement. If unions are going to continue to play an active role in the economy of the future, we must continue to organize heavily female jobs such as health care workers and clerical workers. In order to reach out to women workers, unions have broadened their agendas to include issues such as child care, parental leave, pay equity, sexual harassment, and the special health and safety problems faced by women.

Despite the advances of recent years, women continue to lag far behind men in terms of economic well-being:

* Two out of every three poor adults are women.

* 80% of households headed by women have incomes under $15,000 a year.

* Women still earn only 64¢ for every dollar earned by men.

Women who belong to unions have greatly outpaced nonunion female workers. In 1988 the median wage of a nonunion female worker was only $300 per week. For a woman worker who was a member of a union, the median wage was $403 a week -- an added $103 per week.

This manual is intended as a guide to help unions gain a better understanding of women workers. It will examine some of the major concerns of women in the workplace and provide a look at some successful union strategies in addressing these issues.

II. WHO ARE WOMEN WORKERS?

Nearly two-thirds of all women ages 16 to 64 are in the workforce, and the average woman remains in the workforce for 34 years. The simple fact is that women aren't just temporary members of the workforce.

Younger women are the most likely to be in the workforce. Table 37 shows that over 70% of women between ages 20 and 44 are in the workforce, while only 43% of women between ages 55 and 64 work outside the home. In the years ahead, as a new generation comes of age, younger women will be even more likely to be in the workforce. As Table 37 indicates, by the year 2000 over 80% of women between ages 25 and 44 will be working outside the home:

Table 37

Percentage of Women in the Workforce
Current and Projected for 2000

	1988	2000
Ages 16 to 19	53.6%	61.5%
20 to 24	72.7%	78.4%
25 to 34	72.7%	82.3%
35 to 44	75.2%	84.2%
45 to 54	69.0%	75.4%
55 to 64	43.5%	45.8%
65 and older	7.9%	5.4%
Total	56.6%	61.5%

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

Women can no longer afford to leave the workforce as soon as they marry. Single and divorced women have the highest workforce participation rates, but as Table 38 shows, over 60 percent of married women also work outside the home. Contrary to popular myth, most women work out of economic necessity -- two-thirds of all working women are single, widowed, divorced, separated, or have husbands who earn less than $15,000 a year.

Table 38

Labor Force Participation Rates of Women
by Marital Status, 1988

Never Married	65.2%
Married	56.5%
Married, separated	60.9%
Divorced	75.7%
Widowed	19.8%

Source: National Commission on Working Women

The increase in female-headed households, combined with the gap in male and female earnings has resulted in the "feminization of poverty." In other words, most poor people are women. In fact, two out of every three poor adults are women. The poorest group of women are the 10.9 million women who are heads of households. Ninety percent of all single parent households are headed by women. In 1986, the median income of single parent families maintained by women was $13,647, compared to $24,962 for single parent families maintained by men, and $32,805 for two-parent families. While only 10% of two-parent families with children are below the poverty line, 46% of female-headed households live in poverty.

III. THE PINK COLLAR GHETTO

Although women can now be found in every occupation, 99% of all auto mechanics, electricians, and carpenters are men. For the most part, women are still found in traditional "women's jobs". For example, women comprise over 80% of administrative support and clerical workers, a category which includes secretaries, computer operators, and clerks. In general, women workers tend to be over represented in low paying jobs in the service sector -- 65.6% of minimum wage workers are women.

Table 39 gives a comparison of the kind of jobs men and women have. Outside of managerial and professional workers, the two biggest categories for women are administrative support and service. These two groups include jobs such as secretaries, bookkeepers, waitresses, janitors, and hairdressers. While almost half of all women workers are employed in these two categories, only 15% of working men hold these jobs.

Table 39

Male and Female Employment by Occupational Category, 1989

Category	Women	Men
Managerial and Professional	26.2%	26.2%
Technicians	3.4%	2.9%
Sales	12.6%	11.2%
Administrative Support, including clerical	27.7%	5.9%
Service	18.0%	9.8%
Craft	2.3%	19.5%
Operatives	8.9%	20.7%
Farm	0.9%	3.8%

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

Table 40 indicates that the vast majority of women still work in jobs that are heavily female dominated, but there are some surprises. For example, when most people think of assembly lines, they don't think of women. Yet, with the necessity of two income families and the rise in households headed by women, increasingly more women are assembly and production type jobs.

Table 40

Jobs Where the Most Women Work, 1988

Job Title	Total Employed	% Female
Secretaries	4,030,000	99.1%
Cashiers	2,337,000	82.2
Bookkeepers	1,970,000	92.1
Registered Nurses	1,559,000	94.6
Nursing Aides/Orderlies	1,404,000	89.8
Waiters/Waitresses	1,363,000	82.6
Sales Supervisors	3,658,000	33.5
Elem. School Teachers	1,424,000	84.8
Private household	909,000	96.3
Cooks, except short order	1,634,000	49.8
Typists	798,000	94.5
Child Care Workers	853,000	96.0
Receptionists	848,000	97.1
Sewing Machine Operators	749,000	90.1
Hairdressers/Cosmetologists	769,000	89.5
Secondary School Teachers	1,172,000	54.3
Janitors and Cleaners	2,133,000	31.2
Computer Operators	865,000	66.0
Accountants and Auditors	1,329,000	49.6
Assemblers*	1,105,000	43.9
Bank Tellers	478,000	91.0
Licensed Practical Nurses*	406,000	97.0
Preschool/Kindergarten Teachers	393,000	98.2
Real Estate Sales*	778,000	48.7
Sales Workers, Apparel	462,000	83.2
Total:	33,080,000	73.4%

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

Table 41 shows the jobs that are the most heavily female dominated. Despite the gains women have made in recent years, jobs that we tend to think of as traditional female jobs, such as secretaries, health care workers, hairdressers, and child care workers are still close to 100% female. Altogether, the 25 jobs with the highest percentage of women workers are over 85% female and employ almost one-third of all women in the workforce.

Table 41

Jobs With Highest Percentage of Women Workers, 1988

Job Title	Total Employed	% Female
Secretaries	4,030,000	99.1%
Preschool/kind. teachers	393,000	98.2
Dental assistants	165,000	98.7
Receptionists	848,000	97.1
Dental hygienists	78,000	97.6
Licensed practical nurses	423,000	96.0
Private household workers	909,000	96.3
Child Care Workers	378,000	97.3
Registered Nurses	1,559,000	94.6
Teacher's Aides	423,000	95.9
Typists	798,000	94.5
Dressmakers	126,000	94.4
Bookkeepers	1,970,000	92.1
Telephone Operators	210,000	89.8
Sewing Machine Operators	749,000	90.1
Speech Therapists	66,000	90.2
Bank Tellers	478,000	91.0
Welfare Service Aides	92,000	94.1
Nursing Aides, Orderlies	1,404,000	89.8
Dietitians	74,000	86.1
Hairdressers/Cosmetologists	769,000	89.5
Billing clerks	157,000	90.2
Eligibility clerks, welfare	65,000	90.3
Interviewers	163,000	85.6
Data Entry Keyers	362,000	88.2
Total:	16,689,000	85.7%

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

IV. MINORITY WOMEN

Minority women are often referred to as "doubly disadvantaged" because they are victims of discrimination both as women and as members of minority groups. The Bureau of Labor Statistics does not compile data for Asians and American Indians, but studies show that black and Hispanic women continue to fare even worse than white women. Minority women not only earn less than white women, but have higher rates of unemployment. In 1987 the unemployment rate for black women was 13.2%, for Hispanic women 8.9% and for white women, 5.2% Table 42 indicates that minority women also earn less than minority men. For every dollar earned by the average white male, white females earn 64 cents, black females earn 56 cents, and Hispanic women earn only 53 cents.

Table 42

Median Annual Income (1988)
[as percent of white males]

White Males	100%
Black Males	75%
Hispanic Males	66%
White Females	81%
Black Females	62%
Hispanic Females	56%

Source: National Commission on Working Women

Minority women are also much less likely to be in managerial and professional jobs than white women. 25.8% of white women hold professional or managerial jobs, but the comparable figures are only 17.2% for black women and 14.7% for Hispanic women.

Minority women who belong to unions have outperformed nonunion workers. As Table 43 shows, in 1988 among full-time workers, black women who belonged to unions earned $134 a week more than black women who were not union members. Hispanic women union members earned $127 a week more than nonunion Hispanic women. And the gap is growing: for example, in 1987, Hispanic women in unions earned $72 more than nonunion Hispanic women. The advantages of being a union member are becoming greater!

Table 43

1988 Median Weekly Wages,
Union vs. Non-Union

	Union	Non-Union
White Women	$484	$368
Black Women	$413	$279
Hispanic Women	$397	$270
All Women	$399	$300

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

United Food and Commercial Workers (UFCW) Local 27's organizing drive among 500 poultry workers at a Country Pride plant on the eastern shore of Maryland provides an example of a successful organizing campaign among a workforce that is overwhelmingly black and female. Despite a regional unemployment rate that was almost 30%, UFCW organizers working in coalition with a group of black ministers and the local chapter of the NAACP, were able to win the election by an overwhelming margin of 321-64. The Country Pride workers then went on to push for government action on community problems ranging from inadequate housing to poor schools.

Hotel Employees and Restaurant Employees (HERE) Local 2 represents 13,000 workers in the San Francisco area. More than half of these workers are women, and 70% are members of minority groups. The union has made a strong effort to develop bilingual leadership, and also makes use of multilingual literature and translation at meetings. Actions such as sit-ins and "eat-ins", where members occupy a restaurant during peak hours and order inexpensive items, have led to increased participation among the rank and file.

Local 2 also provides an example of how unions can successfully work with local ethnic community organizations. Asian Immigrant Women Advocates (AIWA) is a community group which offers educational services and workshops to Korean, Chinese, Vietnamese, and Filipino working women. By informing Asian immigrant women of their rights, AIWA has acted as a bridge between Local 2 and the Asian community.

V. PAY EQUITY

Since 1963, it has been illegal for employers to pay women less than men who do the same jobs. However, the issue for the 80's has been comparable worth. This idea is that women should be paid the same as men, even if their jobs are not identical, as long as the jobs are of equal value. In 1981 there was a landmark Supreme Court decision, County of Washington v. Gunther, involving women who guarded female prisoners being paid $200 a month less than men who guarded male prisoners. The Supreme Court ruled that it was an example of sex discrimination and that even though the jobs were not identical, the women were entitled to equal pay.

When the state of Washington conducted a study and found that employees in predominantly female jobs were paid 20% less than employees in predominantly male jobs, AFSCME sued the state to correct the wage disparity. In 1983, a U.S. District Court ruled that the state had violated Title VII of the Civil Rights Act, which prohibits sex-based discrimination. Although the 9th U.S. Circuit Court reversed the decision, the state nevertheless worked out a $482 million settlement with the workers.

In the aftermath of AFSCME v. the State of Washington, 42 states are now conducting or have already conducted studies to find out if there is sex discrimination in how they pay their workers, and 20 states have begun to make pay adjustments.

The clerical and technical workers at Yale University, represented by Local 34 of the Hotel Employees & Restaurant Employees Union, provide an example of how unions can use collective bargaining to achieve pay equity. A survey of their bargaining unit found that, on average, women earned $1,280 less than men. There were ten different salary grades, and no clear standards to determine which jobs were in higher salary grades. Although the unit was 84% female, there were no women in the top grade. The union proposed that the number of grades be reduced from ten to four and since many women were concentrated in high stress jobs, the union proposed that this be taken into account in considering salaries. They succeeded in winning a new contract which virtually eliminated the male/female pay differential, placing 600 workers in the top salary grade, 84% of them women.

VI. CHILD CARE AND PARENTAL LEAVE

As most of us have long suspected, the traditional family with a working father and stay-at-home mother is now the exception rather than the rule. In fact, only 10% of families fit this model. Over 50% of women with children under the age of three are employed outside the home, and 73% of mothers with school age children work. Unions have begun to recognize that for many of their members, balancing work and family is a difficult challenge. In a landmark agreement in July 1986, Oil, Chemical and Atomic Workers Union Local 8-149 and Barr Laboratories signed the first contract in this country to recognize the entire range of work and family issues as a legitimate subject in labor-management relations, in the same way that health and safety is a recognized area for bargaining.

Although women are increasingly accepted in the board room and on the shop floor, raising children is still considered "women's work". Many women still feel tremendous guilt when they go to work and leave the kids in day care, even if work is an economic necessity. This problem is compounded by problems of availability, affordability, and quality of existing child care.

Day care averages $3,400 per year, per child, which makes it the fourth largest budget item for most American households behind food, housing, and taxes. Since the median income for female headed households is $13,647, that would mean the average single mother with two preschool children would pay almost half her income for child care! The dependent tax credit allows families to deduct a portion of their child care expenses from their federal taxes, but many low income families need direct help in meeting their child care costs.

Most employers have not done much to fill this need. According to a 1987 study conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, only 5% of workplaces sponsor day care centers for their employees, or offer financial assistance for day care. A few unions have pioneered child care programs:

* Service Employees International Union, Local 285 negotiated an on-site child care center at Boston City Hospital where members pay on a sliding scale starting as low as $18 a week.

* Service Employees International Union, Local 399 has negotiated a contract with Kaiser Permanente Medical Group in California that provides Kaiser's 4,600 employees with a resource and referral service for selecting a child care program.

* Service Employees International Union, Locals 509, 285 and 254 and the National Association of Government Employees have a contract with the state of Massachusetts, which provides a payroll deduction for child care, making the money they spend on child care nontaxable.

* United Food and Commercial Workers, Local 7 in Grand Junction, Colorado has created a child care center designed to meet the special needs of parents who don't work 9 to 5 shifts. It is open from 6 am to 11 P.M., six days a week and has a capacity of 88 children. The center provides meals to children and is fully licensed and regulated by the State of Colorado. The cost is $42.50 per week.

* United Food and Commercial Workers, Local 1357 in Philadelphia negotiated a $15.00 per member contribution to a Joint Labor-Management Retail Food Trust fund to administer a day care program. UFCW members have a choice of using the Trust Fund's own regional day care center for a small deductible co-payment fee, or receiving an equivalent cash voucher to be used at a day care center of the member's choosing.

* International Ladies' Garment Workers Union (ILGWU) established a child care center in New York City's Chinatown with employers contributing $32 of the $82 weekly cost per child and the Agency for Child Development contributing $40, leaving employees to pay only $10 a week per child.

The AFL-CIO adopted a resolution in 1985 calling on its affiliates to "establish child and dependent care services through the collective bargaining process". This will involve assessing the needs of members and pursuing all referral services, allowances for care in existing centers, time off when the child or dependent is sick, and establishing flexible working hours to accommodate caring for children or other dependents."

Women workers trying to raise a family also need adequate parental leave. According to the National Commission for Working Women, only 40% of women in 1984 were covered by some form of disability insurance or an employer's paid maternity leave policy. And only 33% of employees of mid- and large-size companies have benefits which include unpaid maternity or parental leave.

One hundred seventeen (117) countries worldwide offer some form of parental leave. Canada, Japan, and West Germany offer paid parental leave. Legislation is pending in the United States

which would require most employers to offer unpaid parental leave for up to 10 weeks for the birth, adoption, or serious illness of a child. In the meantime, some unions have succeeded in winning parental leave at the bargaining table:

* The Association of Flight Attendants (AFA) negotiated one of the first parental leave provisions in their 1983-86 contract with United Airlines. Their current contract calls for 30 days of leave from the date of delivery, with seniority retained and accrued during the leave.

* Service Employees International Union, Local 22 has a contract covering Sacramento school workers which offers parental leave of up to two years.

VII. HEALTH AND SAFETY

Many female dominated jobs such as cashiers, secretaries, cosmetologists, beauticians, and health care workers appear safe, especially in comparison to assembly line work and smokestack industries, yet these jobs offer many health threats to female workers.

Stress is one of the most serious and most ignored health problems for women workers. Contrary to popular belief, a NIOSH study found that stress is a much greater danger for workers such as Video Display Terminal (VDT) operators than it is for corporate executives. The study found that stress occurs most often in jobs that combine high demands with little control over the workplace. Today's high technology offices provide additional stress since they often allow managers to constantly monitor performance. Most women with paid employment, in effect, work two jobs -- one in the office, and another one at home. This puts an additional burden of stress on working women.

Nerve Disorders are also a disturbing and growing problem for women workers. A wide variety of jobs, from assembly line producer to cashier to computer operator require workers to bend and twist the wrist thousands of times a day. This can cause what are known as repetitive trauma disorders (RTD). Examples of these are carpal tunnel syndrome (CTS), tendonitis and ganglion cysts. These injuries can be permanently disabling. The key to preventing these injuries is job redesign -- changing the way jobs are done or the tools required so that less stress and less pressure is put on the workers wrist.

Exposure to potentially dangerous chemicals is another serious health risk for women. In male dominated industries, protective equipment may not fit women. In the service fields, many workers are exposed to dangers that are otherwise regulated in industrial settings. For example, while workers are given protective equipment for handling asbestos, laundry workers who clean asbestos contaminated clothing are not. Cosmetologists are repeatedly exposed to a wide variety of unregulated chemicals. In addition, where there are standards, maximum levels for chemicals are set without taking into account the potential effects on the offspring of those exposed.

VDT's are introduced in our nation's workplaces at a rate of one every 13 seconds. These machines increase productivity, but they also pose risks which still are not fully understood. Workers who sit at terminals all day often

suffer muscular/skeletal injuries such as back pains and hand-wrist injuries. In addition, VDT users often complain of eye strain. The possibility of reproductive problems resulting from low level radiation is currently under study. Most of these risks can be reduced by relatively simple measures such as proper equipment design and installation, work station redesign, regular eye examinations, job training, and rest periods during the day.

Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) is another key health issue of the 80's and 90's. An estimated 270,000 people will contract AIDS by 1990. These individuals will require health care, making this a major concern for those whose work involves contact with patients and their bodily fluids. Most of these jobs are in the health care industry and many of these jobs including nurses, nurses aides and hospital orderlies and attendants are overwhelmingly female. The Centers for Disease Control have developed guidelines for those occupations in which workers are exposed to blood and bodily fluids, and although the risk of infection is very small, safe work practices should be followed.

Employers are required by law to actively rid the workplace of health and safety hazards. Unfortunately, OSHA doesn't have nearly enough inspectors to enforce the law. With less than 1,000 inspectors, it would take 80 years for OSHA to walk through every job site in the U.S. Because of this, unions must play an active role in ensuring safe workplaces. By checking accident and illness records and conducting walk-around safety inspections, unions have been able to identify and correct hazards in the workplace.

A. Cosmetologists: Chemical Workers by Another Name

Being a hairdresser or a cosmetologist may seem like a safe profession. But hairdressers and cosmetologists are chemical workers, exposed to substances such as methylene chloride and ammonium thioglycate. Among the health problems they suffer from are allergic reactions, lung disease, miscarriages, and even cancer. Part of the danger results from a lack of regulations. Although cosmetic manufacturers are required to list ingredients on products sold to consumers, they do not have to do so for products sold for use by professionals.

The UFCW has worked to alert hairdressers and cosmetologists to the dangers they face. The union pointed out the need for workers to have better ventilation and protective gloves. Union efforts have also made it possible for cosmetologists to find out what chemicals they are exposed to.

The UFCW has also led the fight to remove formaldehyde and methylene chloride from the beauty industry. Both of these substances have been found to cause cancer. State laws used to require hairdressers to sterilize their tools in formaldehyde. Thanks to union efforts these laws were rescinded. Methylene chloride was found in many hair sprays, but now most manufacturers have removed it. In addition, some manufacturers have begun to voluntarily label their ingredients.

VIII. PART-TIME WORKERS

Employers have been moving toward a greater reliance on part time workers in an effort to reduce labor costs. According to the Conference Board, a business research organization, more than half the new jobs created since 1980 have gone to part time workers. Part-time work represents a double edged sword for working women. Part-time work allows women the opportunity to balance work with the responsibilities of raising a family. But part-time workers generally have lower wage scales and fewer promotional opportunities. In addition, most part-time workers don't have health and pension benefits: two out of every three part-time workers don't receive health insurance, and four out of five part-timers aren't covered by pension plans.

Women are much more likely than men to work part-time. While approximately 20% of the U.S. labor force as a whole consists of part-timers, 30% of working women work part-time. Many women prefer part-time work because it gives them greater flexibility, but 2.4 million women work part-time involuntarily. Part-time jobs are generally low paying. In 1987, half of all part time jobs paid less than $4.42 an hour compared with a median of $7.43 for full-time workers. While some women use part-time wages to supplement their partner's incomes, for women living alone part-time wages usually mean poverty. Three million part-time workers and their families live in poverty.

Table 44

Employment Status and Poverty Rates

Employment Status	Poverty Rates
Full-time, full year	2.7%
Unemployed	
1 to 14 weeks	15.3%
15 or more weeks	29.6%
Part-time for economic reasons	
1 to 14 weeks	16.5%
15 or more weeks	22.3%

Source: Linking Employment Problems to Economic Status, August 1987, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

The temporary help industry is growing rapidly as temporary help changes from a fill-in service to a management tool for cutting costs and controlling labor relations. The temporary help industry in the U.S. now employs approximately 5 million workers annually. Studies show that over 85% of American corporations employ temporary workers.

Part-time scheduling may be desirable for some workers, especially those trying to raise families. Too often, employers have succeeded in excluding part-timers from bargaining units, undercutting the gains of unions. Unions must address this issue, bargaining for equal wages and pro-rated benefits for part-time employees.

The 1983-1986 contract between United Food and Commercial Workers, Local 373 and Northern California grocery chains demonstrates ways that part-time work could be improved as an option for working women. Part-time employees are scheduled to work either four, five, or eight hours a day and receive overtime pay if they work more than these hours. Sick leave and pensions are based on hours worked per year, including paid vacations. Any employee who works four hours or more per week and who has been with the company at least a year is entitled to a minimum of two weeks paid vacation.

IX. FLEXIBLE SCHEDULING

"Nine to Five" is not the ideal schedule for everyone. Many women with families would like the option of starting earlier in the day, or getting to work later. Others may want to temporarily reduce their hours. Under flexible work time (also known as flextime) arrangements, employees agree to work a certain number of hours a day and then they can vary their starting and quitting times as long as they work that number of hours. A recent survey (conducted by Administrative Management Society) of small and medium-sized firms found that 30% now use flexible work time.

X. INSURANCE AND PENSIONS

Women workers are not only underpaid, they also tend to have seriously inferior basic health insurance and pension coverage. Only 42% of service sector employees work for employers who offer health plans. But actual coverage is even lower than this because most plans require full time employment and many have extensive waiting periods before coverage begins. One issue of particular importance to women concerns which aspects of health care are actually covered. Many health plans do not cover services which are considered preventative. These can include mammographies and prenatal and post-partem care.

Women are even less likely to be covered by pensions than by health insurance. Only 25% of service sector employees work for employers who provide pension plans. Moreover, because many women work part-time, move in and out of the workforce, or change jobs to accommodate their spouses, only about half of eligible women eventually receive pension benefits. For this reason, the two key pension issues for women workers are portability and reduced vesting time.

Young women may not be thinking about pensions, but the feminization of poverty only gets worse at retirement. In 1984, the median monthly pension income was $484 for men and $233 for women. For most pension plans in the United States, benefits are based on the participant's prior earnings and years of service. This formula often results in lower benefits for women due to earlier wage discrimination and discontinuous work histories.

XI. SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Studies indicate that as many as three out of every four working women have been sexually harassed. This unwanted sexual attention ranges from offensive remarks, to pinching or patting, or worst of all, demands for sexual activity. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) has defined sexual harassment as unwelcome or unsolicited verbal, physical or sexual conduct that is made a term or condition of employment, is used as the basis for employment or advancement decisions, or has the effect of unreasonably interfering with work, or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment.

Common Forms of Harassment

1. Constant invitations for drinks, dates.
2. Close physical contact while working.
3. Kisses at office parties or business events.
4. Staring at breasts.
5. Touching or grabbing body.
6. Sexual invitations or remarks.
7. Offensive graffiti.
8. Threats of physical assault.
9. Giving lewd cartoons, cards, presents.
10. Obvious sexual gestures.
11. Pressure for sex.
12. Assault and rape.

Source: A Working Woman's Checklist for Sexual Harassment

Since the EEOC issued its guidelines in 1980, sexual harassment has been an issue in about 40,000 complaints filed with them. But that is just a tiny fraction of all harassment cases. Many women never speak up about harassment, not only because it is an awkward issue to talk about, but also because the harasser is generally a supervisor who has some power over the person he harasses. Most victims are afraid to speak out for fear that they will be fired or end up with a negative employment record. These fears are not unfounded. As many as one in four victims are fired as part of harassment and another forty percent of victims quit because of harassment. Because it is a difficult issue for one woman to fight alone, unions can be especially helpful to victims. Other coworkers may also be victims, and thus complaints can be filed as a group.

In a recent Supreme Court ruling, Meritor Savings Bank v. Vinson, the Court ruled that workers whose supervisors have sexually harassed them may sue their employers, even if loss of a job or promotion isn't involved. The Court also suggested that a company may be liable even when management isn't aware of the problem. Where there is a strong union presence, a company is likely to be especially cooperative on this issue. Sexual harassment is an issue that people are uncomfortable talking about, and unfortunately, the odds are that women have experienced it at some point in their working lives.

XII. DIGNITY AND RESPECT

Although tangible issues such as pay equity and day care are important to women workers, for many women the key issue is not dollars and cents, but dignity and respect. This is especially true for women who work in female-dominated jobs. Just as husbands might have said that their wives, who worked sixteen hour days doing housework, did not work, male managers have often undervalued the crucial functions performed by clerical workers and others doing "women's work." These workers want to be paid what they're worth, but just as importantly they want to be treated as valued contributors to the firm. For many workers, the appeal of unions lies more in the voice they offer workers than in any material benefits.

Respect and dignity can't just be inserted into a contract. But the presence of a union can ensure that workers are treated in a decent manner. Unions can provide a grievance procedure so that workers know where to turn when they aren't treated fairly. It's also important for workers to realize that there are others who share their feelings. When workers are isolated from each other, they are afraid to speak out. A strong union presence can give workers the confidence they need to assert their own dignity.

XIII. WOMEN IN UNIONS

The myth that unions are only for blue collar men persisted for too long. Women have a long and proud tradition in the union movement in this country dating back to its birth in the early part of the nineteenth century. In 1834, some 2,500 women organized the Factory Girls' Association in Lowell, Massachusetts in response to lowered wages and mass firings. In 1912 women played a leading role in the famed Lawrence Textile Strike. Many individual women deserve a place in labor history alongside Eugene V. Debs, Samuel Gompers, and other heroes in the struggles of working people:

* Probably the most famous woman in the labor movement was Mary Harris "Mother" Jones. In 1891, at age 61, she was hired as a union organizer for the United Mine Workers. During the next forty years, she traveled throughout the country organizing workers in Pennsylvania, Colorado, West Virginia, Massachusetts, and New York. She was often jailed and told by the authorities that she didn't belong there, and that she should go back to her home. But when asked where she lived, she responded, "Well, I reside wherever there is a good fight against the wrong -- all over the country ... wherever the workers are fighting the robbers I go there."

* Margaret Dreier Robins was one of the founders of the Women's Trade Union League (WTUL), and President of WTUL from 1907 to 1922. Robins led the fight for minimum wage laws, which were passed in 14 states from 1913 to 1923. In addition, she set up a school for women organizers in Chicago.

* Rose Pesotta was elected Vice President of the ILGWU in 1934 as a result of her leadership on organizing drives and strikes in Buffalo, Puerto Rico and Seattle. Once in office, she played a leading role in the 1936 Goodyear Rubber Workers strike in Akron, Ohio, and participated in sit-down strikes in Flint, Michigan. She also led ILGWU drives in Montreal, Cleveland, Boston, and Los Angeles.

* During the 1930's Dorothy Day was a leader of the Catholic Worker's Movement, and editor of Catholic Worker magazine. Under her leadership, Catholic Worker sympathetically covered strikes and urged readers to support workers and boycott oppressive managers. The Catholic Worker's Movement also set up kitchens for strikers and hospitality houses which provided free board for unemployed workers.

* In 1946, Bessie Hillman was elected Vice President of ACTWU after the death of her husband, Sidney Hillman. However, Bessie Hillman was a great trade unionist in her own right. She had led strikes since 1910 and she had organized shirtworkers in Connecticut, Pennsylvania, and New York from 1937 to 1944. In addition, she had served as Education Director of the Laundry Workers Joint Board.

In recent years, popular films have made the public aware of two new labor heroines:

* Karen Silkwood was a worker at a nuclear power plant in Oklahoma who had called attention to the unsafe working conditions in the plant. On her way to a press interview about unsafe practices at the plant, she was killed in a car accident, which some say was caused by an unknown assailant, who caused her car to run off the road.

* Crystal Lee Sutton, better known as Norma Rae, was a shop floor leader at a J.P. Stevens plant in Roanoke Rapids, NC. She was fired for her union activities, but the NLRB ordered her reinstated. She played a key role in ACTWU's successful organizing drive at the plant.

Women are still under represented in unions, but that is starting to change. Since 1970 unions have lost over 4 million male members. The overall membership loss would have been even greater if not for an increase of 400,000 in the female membership. In 1970 less than one-fourth of union members were women. Now, more than one out of every three union members is a woman. Women also play an important role in staff and leadership positions. In 1985 approximately 38% of all national staff members were women, and hundreds of women hold positions as officers of local unions.

Table 45

Women as a Percentage of All Union Members

Year	Women in Unions	All Union Members	% Women
1956	3,400,000	18,279,000	18.6%
1966	3,700,000	19,170,000	19.3%
1970	5,398,000	21,100,000	23.9%
1976	6,400,000	23,970,000	26.7%
1986	5,800,000	16,975,000	34.0%

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

APPENDIX A

Women's Organizations

COALITION OF LABOR UNION WOMEN
15 Union Square
New York, NY 10003
(212)242-0700

WOMEN'S OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH RESOURCE CENTER
Columbia University
600 West 168th Street
New York, NY 10032
(212) 694-3606

NATIONAL COMMISSION ON WORKING WOMEN
(A DIVISION OF WIDER OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN)
1325 G Street, NW
Washington, DC 20005
(202)737-5764

9-5, NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF WORKING WOMEN
614 Superior Avenue, NW
Cleveland, OH 44113
(216) 566-9308

NATIONAL WOMEN'S LAW CENTER
1616 P Street, NW
Suite 100
Washington, DC 20036
(202)328-5160

CHILD CARE LAW CENTER
625 Market Street
Suite 915
San Francisco, CA 94105
(415) 495-5498

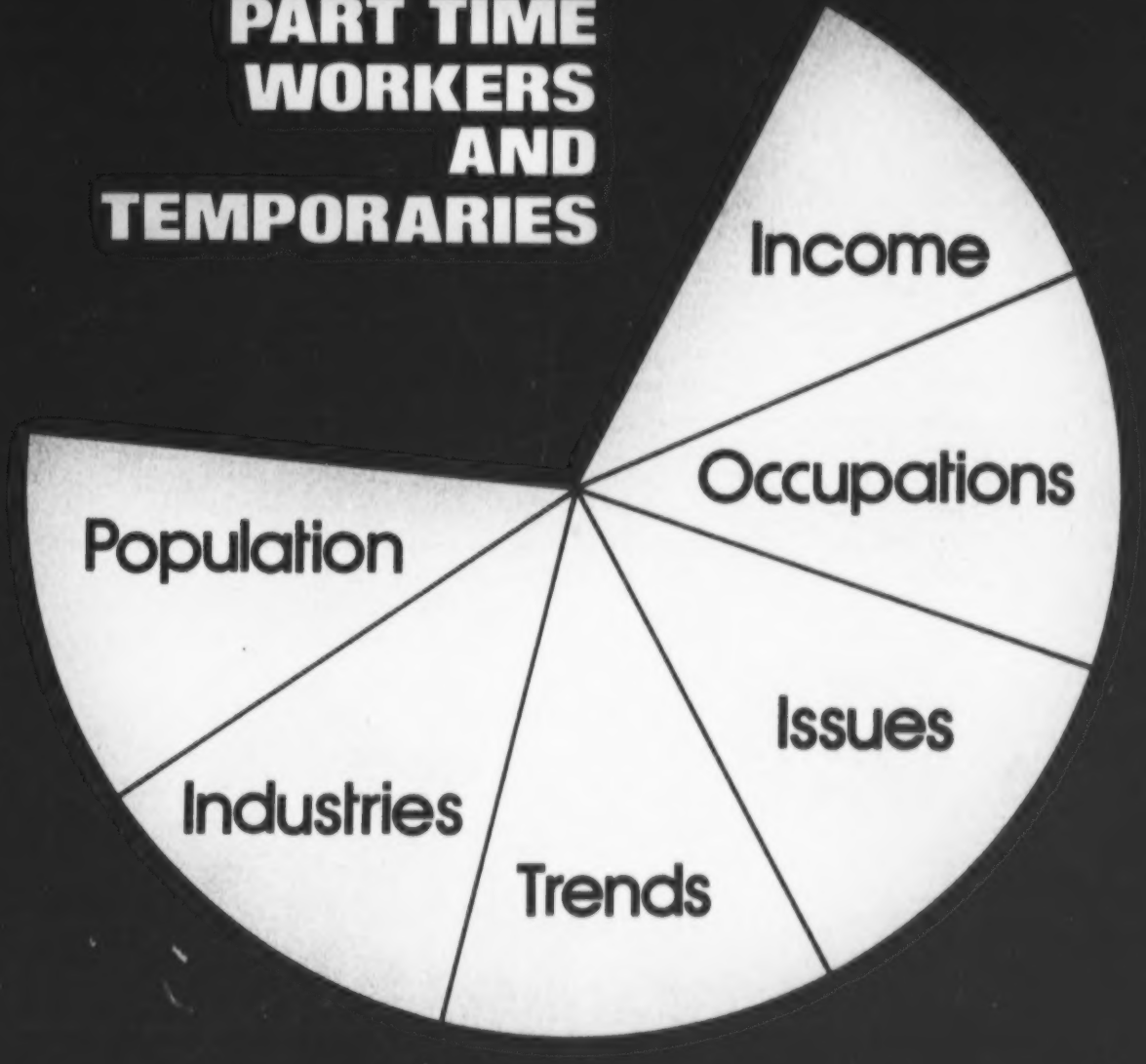
NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON PAY EQUITY
1201 16th Street, NW
Suite 420
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 822-7304

WOMEN'S LEGAL DEFENSE FUND
2000 P Street, NW
Room 400
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 887-0364

WORKING WOMEN'S INSTITUTE
Cornell-N.Y. State School of Industrial Relations Library
15 East 26th Street, 4th floor
New York, NY 10010

FOCUS ON:

PART TIME WORKERS AND TEMPORARIES



I. INTRODUCTION

It sounds so unstable: Oh, she is just here part-time. Or, let's get a temp in here for the week. Instability is the point.

Over the last ten years, an increasing number of employers have decided that building a loyal workforce of people committed to working together for many years simply costs too much. Instead, many companies choose to hire workers who are without bonds to the workplace -- workers who are paid less, who expect less, and who can be "let go" easily.

This "Disposable Workforce" is one of the most dramatic aspects of labor relation to emerge from this decade.

Throughout the 1980's, we have watched employers assume less and less responsibility for the people they employ -- demanding concessions, closing plants without notice, hiring part time and temporary workers, contracting out, arranging to "lease" workers, relying on consultants, locking out workers and their unions, and refusing to bargain in good faith.

Those who defend the extensive use of part time and temporary workers, for example, say that corporate America needs more "flexibility". They say that the intensity of global competition and the uncertainties of the economy make it necessary for a successful company to "stay lean" retaining as few full time people as possible and hiring additional staff when demand is up.

Most business people will also state directly that using part timers and temporary workers is a way to cut labor costs.

While it is true that some workers, especially women with young families, find part time schedules to be very desirable, the incredibly fast rate at which employers are converting their workers into disposable units raises many questions about what can be expected in the future.

II. THE MAKE UP OF THE DISPOSABLE WORKFORCE

It is hard to establish exactly how many non-full time workers there are today in the United States. In a recent study, economist Richard Belous made the following conclusions based on figures from the Bureau of Labor Statistics:

Table 46

Labor Force (in Millions)

	1980	1988	% Change
Temporary Workers	0.4	1.1	175%
Part Time Workers	16.3	19.8	21%
Business Services	3.3	5.6	70%
Self-Employed	8.5	10.1	19%
TOTAL LABOR FORCE	106.9	121.7	14%

What is clear is that every category of the disposable workforce has grown at a faster rate than the total growth of the American workforce in the 1980's.

Belous estimates that in 1988, what he terms the "contingent" workforce totaled between 29.9 million and 36.6 million. That is 25-30% of the entire civilian workforce of 122 million.

Interestingly, the trend toward using disposable workers seem to be a global one.

In regard to part time workers, for example, a study released during the summer of 1989 by the International Labor Organization (ILO) found that there are approximately 50 million part time workers in the industrialized nations. This is 30% higher than ten years ago. There are, however, a number of other countries that have higher percentages of part time workers than the U.S. (See Table 47)

Table 47

Percentage of Part Time Workers in Europe, Japan, and the United States (1989)

	Part Time Workers as a Percentage of Total Workers
Great Britain	25%
Japan	12%
Norway	26%
United States	20%

The ILO (a United National organization) also found that around the world, part time workers are more often women than men; are usually between the ages of 25 and 44; and are concentrated in the service industries.

III. PART TIME WORKERS

With about 20 million part time workers in the workplace now, they make up the largest segment of the disposable workforce. In this decade part time employment has grown about twice as fast as total employment in the U.S.

An estimated one out of six American workers is considered part time. A worker is defined by the Department of Labor as being "part time" if he or she works less than 35 hours per week. However, the average part time employee works roughly 20 hours per week.

Women make up two-thirds of the part time workforce. Part time workers are also usually young, rather than old.

Table 48

Percentage of Part Time Workers

Men	10.1%
Women	26.6%
White	17.6%
Men	9.8%
Women	27.6%
Black	16.0%
Men	11.9%
Women	20.1%

One question that is often debated is: How many part time workers would rather be working full time? It is obvious why this is difficult to calculate, but most surveys find that at least 30% of all part time workers would rather have full time hours and full time pay.

In what jobs are part time workers employed? Table 49 illustrates that retail trades and service sector industries are the primary workplaces recruiting part time workers.

Table 49

Percentage of Part Time Workers in Various Industries

	1979	1985	% Change
Construction	20.8%	23.7%	+2.9
Manufacturing	8.5	11.1	+2.6
Transportation, Communications, Utilities	9.9	13.7	+3.8
Wholesale	8.1	13.0	+4.9
Retail	34.3	39.8	+5.5
Finances, Insurance, Real Estate	13.8	16.9	+3.1
Services	17.8	31.1	+13.3
Agriculture and Mining	21.9	27.7	+5.8
Public Administration	17.8	12.4	-5.4

It is obvious from Table 49 that, while service and retail industries employ the majority of all part time workers, all sectors have increased the use of part time workers.

IV. TEMPORARY WORKERS

The number of temporary workers has almost tripled since 1980. The number of temporary workers has gone from 400,000 to 1.1 million according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This number could be grossly underestimated, however, since BLS only counts temporary workers hired through employment agencies, not those hired directly by a company.

This rapid rate of growth is expected to continue into the next decade.

Who are temporary workers? Table 50 provides some clues:

Table 50

Temporary Workers as Compared with All Workers

	Temporary Workers	All Workers
Total, 16 years and older	100.0%	100.0%
16-24 years	32.7	20.1
25-54 years	57.6	67.4
55 and over	9.7	12.5
Men	35.8	55.0
Women	64.2	45.0
White	75.4	89.9
Black	20.2	10.4

Women make up approximately two-thirds of the temporary workforce, although they comprise four out of nine of all workers. Blacks make up about one out of five temporary workers but only comprise one out of ten workers overall.

More than half of all temporary workers are employed in technical, sales, and administrative support occupations. Clerical workers who are classified as "administrative support" comprise two out of five of temporary workers employed in this area.

Unskilled blue collar and service sector positions are also common areas that employers fill with temporary workers. Seven out of ten temporary workers are in the following low-skill areas: administrative support, unskilled blue collar work and the service sector.

There are temporary workers who are in Professional Positions such as engineers, accountants, computer specialists, etc. These professional make up approximately 17% of all temporary workers.

To get a better perspective on how many companies use temporary employees The Bureau of National Affairs conducted a survey and found that 65% of the companies they interviewed said that temporary workers were "very important" or "somewhat important" to their operations.

V. COMPENSATION AND BENEFITS

Two things are clear in regard to part time and temporary workers: the pay is less than average and there is virtually no job security.

Even when lack of experience is taken into consideratiopn, it is clear that part time workers are simply not paid as well as full time workers. Benefits are often non-existent. Only one in six part time workers gets health insurance from their employer.

Richard Belous made the following estimates of hourly earning for part time workers versus full time employees. (based on the fact that the average full time employee works 35 hours/week while part time workers work 20 hours/week):

Table 51

Part Time Workers Salaries
(as Compared to Full Time Workers)

Occupation	Full Time	Part Time	% Difference
Professional	$14.80	$8.30	78%
Clerical	8.80	5.70	54%
Services	6.69	4.15	61%
Blue Collar	8.80	4.95	78%

In all cases, it is apparent that part time workers make far less money.

In a study conducted by George Washington University on health insurance coverage, economists found that while over 75% of all full time, full year employees had health insurance from their employer, only one-third or fewer part time workers were covered by any insurance. The same study found that fewer than one-fifth of part time workers were included in their employers pension plan while almost three-fifths of full time employees were.